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THE MANAGEMENT OF A CITY SCHOOL

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THE MANAGEMENT OF A CITY SCHOOL

BY

ARTHUR C. PERRY, JR., PH.D.

PRINCIPAL OF PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 85
BROOKLYN, N.Y.

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PREFACE

"His is the life, the impulse of the school, its controlling and directing power, its inspiration and its hope."
— SUPERINTENDENT HOWLAND on "The School Principal."

IN treating of the management of a school it has seemed most natural to group the topics about its central figure, the principal. The fact that this is the point of view will not lessen, it is hoped, the legitimate interest which the superintendent on the one hand and the class teacher on the other may take in the discussion.

Because of their variant local uses, certain terms, as employed in this book, are here defined: —

Supervisor is the generic term for all persons in positions of direct or indirect supervisory authority over teachers.

A *Principal* is the administrative officer directly in charge of a number of teachers and classes, in one or more buildings; known variously as a head master, a supervising principal, a district principal, etc.

A *School* is the unit of organization in charge of a principal.

An *Elementary* school is one whose pupils are taken through only the seventh, eighth, or ninth school years and then promoted into the secondary or high school.

Grade is applied to the group of pupils doing the same level of work; the grades are designated by numbers indicating the pupil's year in school, with a literal suffix indicating the first or second half of the year, the successive grades being 1A, 1B, 2A, 2B, 3A, etc.

Class is applied to the group of pupils under a single teacher, in a single room; thus there may be in a large school two or more classes of any one grade, or in a small school two or more grades in one class.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

NOTWITHSTANDING that "the principal of the school is the single time-honored official found in a modern school system" [1] and "the key of the educational system," [2] and that "as the principal is, so is the school," in the literature of pedagogy there has been no work devoted exclusively to the duties and problems of his position. Many helpful volumes have been written on the broad topics of educational history, methods, and principles, and in the field of administration a few authors treat very adequately the subject of class-room management; but upon assuming the duties of a princi-

[1] Charles B. Gilbert, "The School and Its Life," New York, 1906, p. 201.

[2] William Estabrook Chancellor, "Our Schools — Their Administration and Supervision," Boston, 1905, p. 103.

palship the teacher finds no special literature upon the subject of his new position. He is thus thrown considerably upon his own resources. It is not to be denied that this enforced self-reliance is in itself somewhat of an advantage, but it compels the principal to learn by experience, oftentimes disagreeable if not painful, much which he would have been glad to have had presented to him in book form at the outset of his executive career. The present work aims to meet this need.

Some statements may seem trite. Nevertheless they may not have been systematically brought to the attention of the prospective principal, so that their presentation here may help him to fix upon definite policies.

Some of the topics may seem trivial. But the whole atmosphere of a school is largely dependent upon the attention given by the competent principal to matters of detail. It must be remembered, too, that the needs of different readers are not identical, so that what may be a commonplace to one may be of value to another.

Two equally attractive temptations have been resisted: to reach up into the problems of the school superintendent, and to reach down into the detail of the work of the class teacher. A discussion of the broader questions of school adminis-

tration — such as the financing of systems, the coördination of schools, the functions of school boards, the construction of courses of study — would be interesting; but these are outside the range of the principal's daily work, and moreover they have already elicited an extensive and valuable literature which is at the command of the thoughtful principal. So, too, with the more intimate problems of the class teacher, which chiefly demand a mastery of general and special method. What has been attempted is to build upon a broad foundation of rational philosophy a superstructure of the more important principles which should guide the principal in the administration of his school.

The conditions assumed are those which confront the principal of the city public school of elementary grade. The district school of a class or two, — concerning which have been written most of the books on "school management," — or the town school of four or five rooms with a teacher in charge, does not measurably present the problems which are here considered. But to the principal of from 10 to 80 classes, enrolling from 500 to 4000 pupils, there are continually

presented perplexing problems which demand mature thought and keen judgment. As there has been a rapid increase in the number and size of corporations and "trusts" formed, so the political economists tell us, for the more perfect and economical accomplishment of commercial ends, there has been a parallel tendency in school administration to place in the hands of a single principal a school or schools so large as to demand the ability and energy of a veritable "captain of industry." It is not in order to discuss the advantages or disadvantages of this passing of the old-time schoolmaster and the advent of the modern school manager; sufficient is it to realize that such a transition is taking place, and to examine into the requirements of the new position.

Recognizing the fact, the principal of to-day must be ready to apply the same business principles to the handling of the business side of his school as are employed by any other manager of large interests. In order to exert the full measure of his influence, he must do his work systematically, accurately, and promptly.

He must even be prepared to face the appalling charge often flaunted before him by the jealous, the misunder-

standing, or the incapable, of being too systematic. "Red-tape" will be the indefinite accusation. On this subject of system, we may lay down a few guiding and restraining propositions. Red-tape is unjustifiable system. All system should be merely a means to worthy ends; never regarded as the end itself. When a system ceases to simplify, it becomes red-tape. When a system is followed for itself and not for what it can do, it becomes red-tape. Whenever system becomes red-tape it should be abandoned; systems are made for men, not men for systems.

If system along any line of his work simplifies that work and thus conserves the energy of the principal, leaving him more of it to put into the professional side of his work, it becomes his duty to adopt it. Hence, throughout these pages, systematic treatment of the various phases of administration is recommended, not that the particular methods cited are unique or the best, but that they have tried advantages and may suitably serve as suggestions.

With topics which permit of serious difference of opinion, the aim has been to present both sides of the question with equal fullness and with sufficient submergence of possible personal bias.

The large school with which we are concerned is one of many in a city or town system of

public education. The principal is thus brought into relation with higher authorities, — a School Board, a Superintendent, perhaps a Board of Superintendents, — so that we must look into this relationship, which is done under the caption "The Principal and the Authorities."

On his other hand are the principal's coworkers, the teachers. Upon the relationship which he establishes with them will his success mainly depend, so that a chapter is devoted to this topic.

Throughout the book I refer, for the sake of clearness, to the principal as *he* and the teacher as *she*, though I am not unmindful that there are many women principals and many men teachers in our schools. The reader will please not to take exception to the arbitrary selection of pronouns, but accept it as a simple means to a desirable end.

In addition to these official relationships there is to be considered the relation of the principal to the formal public, known in the text-books as The State, and that more concrete public which comes daily into his office on various errands, many legitimate and sincere, but alas! too many others mercenary or meddling.

It is not to be forgotten, however, that the very existence and maintenance of the schools is in behalf

of the pupils; and the matters of detail growing out of the principal's daily responsibility for the welfare of the children under his charge demand extended treatment.

But after all, the ultimate element of success in a principal's career is the principal himself. It will be his personality, his devotion to duty and progress, that will make or mar his school. Hence the concluding chapter will consider The Principal and the Principalship.

CHAPTER II

THE PRINCIPAL AND THE STATE

"THE support of a system of public education out of the proceeds of taxation," says Dr. Adler,[1] "is justifiable in the last analysis as a measure dictated to the State by the law of self-preservation." The State, through its departments of education, lecture bureaus, public libraries, museums, and other

[1] Felix Adler, "The Moral Instruction of Children," New York, 1902, p. 11. Cf. "Education is the proper office of the State for two reasons. . . . Popular education is necessary for the preservation of those conditions of freedom, political and social, which are indispensable to free individual development. And, in the second place, no instrumentality less universal in its power and authority than government can secure popular education. In brief, in order to secure popular education, the action of society as a whole is necessary; and popular education is indispensable to that equalization of the conditions of personal development which we have taken to be the proper object of society. Without popular education, moreover, no government which rests upon popular action can long endure: the people must be schooled in the knowledge, and if possible in the virtues, upon which the maintenance and success of free institutions depend."— WOODROW WILSON, "The State," Boston, 1904, p. 638.

institutions, gives a broad definition to the phrase "a system of public education"; but to the average citizen the word *education* is limited in its application to his and his neighbors' children, and in its content to their formal instruction in the Public School. It is the relation to the State of the administrative officer of a public school, known locally by various titles, but most frequently by that of Principal, that merits our present attention.

At the outset we must distinguish between two fundamental relations which the principal bears to his work, to confuse which is hopelessly to cloud discussion. The principal's twofold relation is, on one side, broad and general, on the other, narrow and specific. His general relation is ill defined because it concerns his obligations to Society as a whole; his specific relation is well defined because he is a contractual agent of organized government.

Treatment of the "general" relation will take the form of discussion rather than definition, because it must rest upon sociological premises; these are so at variance that, following one or another, we may arrive at quite antipodal conclusions. If we accept the *laissez-faire* philosophy and the statement that "we owe to each other good will, mutual

respect, and mutual guarantees of liberty and security. Beyond this nothing can be affirmed as a duty of one group to another in a free State," [1] the discussion is already closed. But, without invading the precincts of socialism, we may recognize that civilized Society, in spite of the philosophers, has developed the doctrine that Opportunity brings Responsibility. We need not here concern ourselves with the justice of the doctrine nor go into a discussion of its evolution.

The misleading epigram that "all men are created equal" [2] served noble purposes in bygone days, but it has given place in the public "mind" to a series of ideas which, in so far as they can be caught and congealed into words, may perhaps be fairly expressed thus: it would be a pleasant condition if all men were born free and equal; but they are

[1] William Graham Sumner, "What Social Classes Owe to Each Other," New York, 1883, p. 169.

[2] "The platitudes of democracy are readily accepted by the crowd; the full depth of its principles is far from being easily understood. It is easy to cry, 'Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity,' and to carve the words in letters of stone upon public buildings and public monuments. It is not so easy to answer the query whether, in truth, unrestricted liberty and perfect equality are at all compatible." — NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, "The Meaning of Education," New York, 1905, p. 106.

not, and human ingenuity cannot reasonably expect to create this condition. This is not to say that we shall despair of the amelioration of present conditions, but that our hope is, not that every man shall be born into the world with equal equipment of body, mind, and "goods," but that every man shall have a free and independent "opportunity" to make the most of such equipment as is his. When equal freedom and opportunity do become the heritage of each member of society, then presumably the *obligations* of its members will be distributed equally. In the meanwhile, taxes are levied in proportion to a man's wealth, — at least, that is the aim, — and society assumes that it likewise has the right to levy taxes upon the *mental and moral wealth* of its members. It is this assumption that renders necessary a consideration of the teacher's "general" relation to the State.

When society has paid the laborer his dollar a day for digging a ditch, it considers the account closed; if there were no "society," the laborer, alone in the forest, could by the output of equivalent labor support himself approximately a "dollar's worth." When society has paid the manufacturer a million dollars a year for supplying it with the products of his mill, it considers the account still open; if there were no "society," the manufacturer, alone in the

forest, could never, by the output of any conceivable labor, support himself a "million dollars' worth." Hence society asks the millionaire: What is your return to us for the opportunity which we have by our very existence given you to accumulate dollars? and the millionaire himself, recognizing the justice of the claim,[1] makes voluntary payments upon the balance due society.[2]

There are certain classes of persons upon whom this non-monetary tax falls heaviest, viz. the workers in the professions. Of recent years the word *pro-*

[1] *E.g.* "This, then, is held to be the duty of the man of wealth: To set an example of modest, unostentatious living, shunning display or extravagance; to provide moderately for the legitimate wants of those dependent upon him; and, after doing so, to consider all surplus revenues which come to him simply as trust funds, which he is called upon to administer, and strictly bound as a matter of duty to administer in the manner which, in his judgment, is best calculated to produce the most beneficial results for the community — the man of wealth thus becoming the mere trustee and agent for his poorer brethren, bringing to their service his superior wisdom, experience, and ability to administer, doing for them better than they would or could do for themselves." — ANDREW CARNEGIE, "The Gospel of Wealth," New York, 1900, p. 15.

[2] A prophet might predict that in time society will make the payments less "voluntary" than they now are. For instance, instead of "protecting" a manufacturer so that his profits are ten million dollars a year, and accepting from him as a gratuity a single million, society may decide to "protect" the manufacturer less and itself more by taking the nine millions and leaving him the one million — but that is another story.

fession has fallen somewhat into disrepute owing to its loose popular application to those whose vocation is dancing or boxing or the cutting of corns. Originally limited to law, medicine, and theology, the present-day conservative use of the word is indicated by the Standard's definition: an occupation that properly involves a liberal education or its equivalent, and mental rather than manual labor. Notably two vocations, writing and teaching, are beginning to measure up to this criterion. It is safe to say that the education of the average school principal is fully as "liberal" as that of the average lawyer, physician, or minister.

A liberal education is a form of opportunity provided by society; and so, in return, society demands a "general" service from the members of the professions in addition to the specific services for which its individuals pay by contract. The nature of this service can be, at best, but vaguely expressed, and yet the notion is surely present in the "mind" of society. The idea takes concrete expression in the expectation that the physician shall serve in any emergency without preliminary stipulation as to his fee, that the clergyman shall respond to a "call" outside his own church, that

the lawyer shall not instigate litigation for the sake of profiting by its settlement — but it has a broader and still more ideal content.

The physician has a specific relation to his individual patients. He is virtually under contract to render a certain amount of service for a given financial reward. But beyond this, society demands of him that he shall use his liberal education along his special lines for the "general" good. He is expected to aid in the advance of medical science and to give his discoveries freely to society as a whole; he is expected to advise society as to legislative measures necessary to its physical well-being and to agitate for their enactment; indeed, he is expected to immolate his self-interest to the extent of so bettering conditions generally that he will be less needed specifically.[1]

The pastor or priest has his specific contractual relation to his church, but even when his special duties toward his parishioners have all been performed, society asks that he shall recognize and discharge his general obligation. As the representa-

[1] For instance, it is the physicians who see that our houses are disinfected after a case of contagious disease, notwithstanding that it would be more "profitable" to them if they kept this secret to themselves.

tives of the institution whose aim is the leading of its followers in the paths of righteousness, the clergy are expected to advance the moral health of society just as the physicians protect and advance its bodily health.

Similarly, the lawyer has a broader obligation than is implied by his contractual relation with his clients. As a member of his profession, he is expected to contribute freely of his learning toward civic progress and the betterment of organized government.[1]

Parallel to these three lines of thought must be drawn a fourth, dealing with the profession of teaching. In proportion as the educator is himself "liberally" educated, society imposes upon him an extra-contractual obligation.

A crude though very concrete phase of this is the way in which any teacher, especially in rural districts, is pursued by people who have no contractual claim upon him, and plied with intellectual puzzles, for the solution of which he, *ex officio*, is supposed to be especially responsible.

[1] Witness the fact that society "honors" one form of this service to the extent that a lawyer will gladly relinquish a $20,000 practice for a $10,000 judgeship. Also, the influence of Bar Associations upon judiciary elections.

The president of any one of our great universities is credited with having a general survey of the educational world and its needs, and this very equipment makes it his duty to use it in public service without remuneration. As an illustrious example, consider the present head of Harvard University. For years his specific duties toward that institution have been performed on a definite basis of service rendered for cash paid. And yet what a chill such a cold commercial statement must give to even a callous reader. How much larger has been the devoted service of Dr. Eliot to thousands of individuals and to society as a whole than the financial return which society has given him. It is this difference between the two norms that measures the "general" obligation which he has fulfilled, based upon his liberal education and his membership in a profession — that is, upon opportunity. But we are driven back to the axiom that all men are not created equal and to the further truth that all men are not created even with the same opportunity. It is not given to every lawyer to sit upon the Supreme Court bench, nor to every physician to make a revolutionizing discovery, nor to every clergyman to initiate some great Reform, nor to

every educator to guide a university; nevertheless, every member, in proportion to his opportunity, has his own "general" obligation. And this brings us down to the school principal. Let us glance at a few of his general obligations.

1. In any American community the "liberally" educated men are chiefly to be found among the physicians, lawyers, editors, and clergy, and it is to these that the people look for practical guidance along lines relating to the general welfare. The school principals should be found in this class. If they are not, it can mean only that they are not liberally educated, and that for that particular community teaching is not a profession. It is all too true that the negative condition is widely prevalent, but the needs of society require that teaching shall become a profession. Hence the duty of every teacher to assist in bringing about that condition.

Any city that appointed to its teaching positions only broadly educated and specially trained men and women, paying salaries to compare favorably with those of similarly equipped men and women elsewhere, would, even on the large money-capital required, receive enormous dividends in the improved financial, physical, mental, and

moral welfare of its rising generation of citizens. This would mean that every teacher would be university-trained — a condition far removed from that of the present day. Moreover, it would be impossible practically to establish this condition by any other method than one of *gradual* extension of requirements. It is fortunate that the trend is in that direction; but equally unfortunate is it that so few teachers encourage the forward movement, the many not realizing that their very self-interest, if no higher motive, should make them sympathize with it. In nearly every city, if the requirements of eligibility are raised, the teachers themselves protest; rather should they indorse every such measure; indeed, it should be they who take the initiative.

Presumably, the principals of city schools represent a selection from among the best teachers. They therefore owe primarily this duty to society: to convince it that it is to its interest to establish teaching as a profession, and to convince their fellow-teachers that it is to their interest to secure professional recognition.[1]

[1] Cf. ". . . it appears the duty of every educational man to be diligent in molding educational sentiment, and in giving trend to educational thought. His professional duty is not circumscribed to the schoolroom or the office; he must face about and voice to the public their own latent ideas and purposes, and crystallize their convictions into active educational forces." — ARNOLD TOMPKINS, "The Philosophy of School Management," Boston, 1898, p. 102.

2. Notwithstanding the reluctance of society to put the business of teaching upon a professional footing, at least the individual principal can, in his own community, win personal recognition as to his fitness for professional consideration — indeed, this takes rank as one of his "general" duties. If he himself has not had a liberal education in its formal sense, he should get it; or if he has had formal education, he should broaden and deepen it by continued study and reflection. Society will take him as it finds him, and it will estimate him much as he fairly estimates himself. If he rests comfortably in a snug official position from which he cannot be disturbed so long as he renders even perfunctory time-service, his fellow-citizens will class him, and that but casually, as an accident enjoying a public "snap," a "feeder at the public crib"; if, on the contrary, he proves himself liberally educated, if he regards his office as the agency through which he renders public service, if he identifies himself with professional men and women, with the leaders of public thought, his community will award him professional credentials, and through him the teaching vocation will gain measurably in dignity and recognition.

3. If "the school is only an institution for providing environments, for turning environmental forces to a definite and conscious end," [1] and if, for the time, we regard the word *environment* in its popular rather than in its technical sense, it is clearly a "general" duty of the principal correctly to appraise the particular environmental forces operative in his community. In this he is considering his school in its institutional phase, and himself, as the head of the institution. As such, he must take into account its correlated institutions, both universal and local. The family and the church, though universal throughout the civilized world, are subject to wide local variations. The family life of one American community differs considerably from that of another, so that the principal must make a close estimate of its local character. Similarly must he measure and evaluate the particular religious influences at work in his district as well as such local forces as newspapers, libraries, museums, charitable and benevolent foundations, and industrial institutions. His duty toward these factors of institutional environment is not

[1] William Chandler Bagley, "The Educative Process," New York, 1907, p. 36.

alone that he shall understand them, but that he shall take his part as a man of liberal education in acting with them and reacting upon them.

4. It is as a professional expert that the principal has his chief "general" duty. Society may justly expect him to contribute his share to the philosophy and science of education, and to act, as it were, on its board of advisers when it formulates its educational policies.

The general public is intimately acquainted with education chiefly as an "art" practiced by the teachers it knows. Few realize that this art is based upon sound principles which in their systematic collation constitute the "science" of education. The fact that it is not an "exact" science, and presumably never can become such, does not, of course, remove it from the scientific class.[1]

The astronomer deals with masses and forces; the educator deals with minds and masses and forces. To the layman the work and the accomplishments of the astronomer are picturesque and mystifying; the prophetic discovery of a Neptune is startling, and scents of wizardry; surely, says he, astronomy is indeed a science!

[1] "Only the sciences based upon mathematics are exact or lay claim to exactness; all others are descriptive only, and wider experience or further observation may modify their conclusions at any time. A science of education is analogous to a science of medicine." — BUTLER, *op. cit.*, p. x.

But the discovery of Neptune was but a patient study in the decomposition of forces, a process of deduction from established principles. Education is a study in the decomposition of the forces that produce the complete man. As compared to those in the physical realm, these forces are immeasurably greater in number and variety. The new-born babe is far more complex than a solar system; the educated man is even more marvelously complex; to convert the one into the other is a task beside which regulating the gear of the planets is play.

Because its phenomena are complex, its data unlimited, its generalizations tentative, does not preclude scientific treatment of the subject of education.

Like all other scientists, the student of education must be continually testing and retesting its principles. It does not do to be too dogmatic even in the material sciences — we may yet discard the law of gravitation. The educator, working in the realm of psychological forces and mental complexes, must ever be a skeptic. When some pedagogic enthusiast or journalistic theorist,[1] with an air

[1] "Opinion serves for information, and prejudice usurps the place of principle. The popular journals and the printed proceedings of educational associations teem with perfectly preposterous contributions bearing the signatures of worthy and distinguished men, who would not dream of writing dogmatically upon a physical, a biological, or a linguistic problem. For some recondite reason they

of finality, promulgates "the" principles of education, the conscientious and cautious student waits, waits and sees most of the "principles" utterly demolished by scientific testing. This is not to imply that scientific generalization has no place, but that it should be done by the scientifically equipped, and the results accepted only as working hypotheses. Educational theory, meaning its tentative generalizations, shifts pendulously, and we may question whether it will ever reach a state of equilibrium. The principal, of all school people, must not lose his balance and himself swing too far or too frequently. He will maintain a scientific attitude, accepting new theories, not as laws of the Medes and Persians, but as hypotheses to be tested in the laboratory of his school and his own thought. This may often bring him into disagreement with his fellow-educators, and he must conduct himself with fairness and courtesy, recognizing the rights of others to their opinions and maintaining his own right to his.

Above all, society expects the educator, as it expects the physician, as a professional expert,

face the equally difficult and unfamiliar problems of education without a tremor." — BUTLER, *op. cit.*, p. 94.

fearlessly and freely to contribute his individual, honest convictions on technical questions. If the educational policy of society is not to be molded by the practical educators, including the school principals, by whom, then, is it to be molded? Shall the school men shirk their plain duty to the State, and leave it to be performed by the liberally educated men of the other professions, or, what so frequently is the sad case, by unintelligent representatives of the people? [1]

The above outline of the principal's "general" relation to the State has been given with intentional "sketchiness." It has been emphasized, however, in order that it may serve as a background against which the succeeding discussion of his "special" relation may stand out in bold relief.

The State, through its organized institution of government, establishes and supports schools. In America, education is a function exercised by the State governments. We have no federal system; we have no municipal systems, properly speaking. The administration of its school affairs by the city is

[1] Arizona, March 4, 1905, added to the membership of its territorial Board of Education two principals or superintendents of graded or high schools, to be appointed by the Governor.

not an inherent right, but one which, like its other municipal functions, it receives at the hands of the State through statutory instruments known as charters. The State reserves to itself its function as public educator, but, for economy and efficiency in administration, tentatively [1] delegates the detailed exercise of that function to its corporate municipalities.[2]

The definite relation of the State to the city varies throughout the country, and the principal should have a clear understanding of that relation as it exists between his State and his city.

Likewise, the exact form of the contract which he makes is a matter of local variation. Technically, he is not an officer of either the State or the city, but an employee; therefore he has a contractual and not an official position. Whatever the local differences, the condition essentially is this: the

[1] *Tentatively*, because States frequently resume the exercise of functions previously delegated to the cities, *e.g.* Illinois, May 12, 1905, repealed Sec. 29 of the laws of 1889, permitting cities of 30,000 to 100,000 population to examine and license public school teachers.

[2] Acting through legislative bodies variously known by the titles: School Board, Board of Education, School Committee, Board of School Directors, etc.

principal is under contract whereby, in consideration of a stated salary, he is to administer the affairs of a particular school *in accordance with the terms of his contract.* These terms are usually in the main only implicit,[1] but legally they are as binding as if explicitly stated in his contract. The chief sources of the "terms" are the State constitution, the State laws, the municipal charter, and the by-laws, rules, and regulations of the School Board. With these the principal should be as familiar as he is with the other side of his contract — that which states the number of dollars and cents that constitute his remuneration.

The duties arising from his general relation to the State, as indicated above, are not included in the principal's contract. It is to be presumed that he will meet the obligations of that contract and perform his specific duties on a working basis of sound philosophy and in a spirit of progressive scholarship, but *his fundamental relation to his school is not pedagogical, but legal.* This distinc-

[1] "If, in the light of the present-day experiences, one may be permitted to pass an opinion, it would be that both boards of education and teachers are in need of legislative protection and prohibitions in this matter of contract obligations." — PROFESSOR EDWARD C. ELLIOTT in Bulletin No. 3, 1906, Bureau of Education, p. 79.

tion must be accurately drawn and kept constantly in view.

To illustrate, consider the case of a New York City principal who has certain well-formed administrative opinions, gained by fruitful experience and conscientious thinking, among them, for instance: (1) that once a term is as frequently as his school should be put through a fire drill;[1] (2) that the principal should not be required to have technical knowledge of the janitor's duties in running the heating plant; and (3) that the principal should have the power to reduce pupils in grade without reference or report of the fact to his superiors. The facts are: (1) a State law provides that he shall exercise his school in a fire drill once a month, subject to a fine of $50 in case of neglect; and the by-laws of the Board of Education provide (2) that he shall have responsible supervision of

[1] His chief argument would probably be that there is an element of danger even in the "drill," and that this risk should be incurred very infrequently. Such a position is not here defended. The subject of emergency dismissals is fully discussed later (p. 172), and the reference to it here, as to the other topics, is only to give point to the supposititious case cited. It may be noted, in passing, that the St. Louis rule reads: "Principals shall pay special attention to the prompt and orderly dismissal of their pupils at the close of school, and also to the dismissal for recess. They shall use this daily practice in lieu of a special fire drill and assign to each teacher her station and business during such dismissal, so that in case of emergency when the school is to be dismissed quickly, the habit of good order acquired by such daily practice may help to prevent a panic." — Regulation IV, Sec. XXIII.

the janitor as to the operation of the heating apparatus; and (3) that, upon reducing a pupil in grade, he shall report the fact to his superintendent, who has the power to reverse his action. The principal may be sincere in his belief that the best interests of the schools require their administration in accordance with his opinions, but it is clear that he has no option in the matter. He is under contract to administer his school contrary, if it so happens, to his own opinions — his pedagogy must yield to law. This is his special relation to his school, but, as we have seen, his duty does not end here. His general relation implies that in proportion as he feels the unwisdom of the law, he shall exercise his extra-contractual obligation to society, and, while punctiliously complying with the law, strenuously advocate its amendment. Only by performing this general duty can he discharge his full obligation to the State.

Nor must the principal betray any emotion in performing his legal duties when they discord with what he considers good educational practice. The law is an impersonal expression, albeit it is the consensus of personal opinions. The place for strong feeling for or against a law is in the course of its enactment or in the advocacy of its repeal — never in its execution.

To select an extreme case by way of illustration, capital punishment is administered by law. The hangman has a

citizen's — we might say an expert's — right to advocate the repeal of that law, but it is evident that in executing its provisions he has no right to "half" hang his subject, or to hang him with intentional bungling, or to commiserate with him on the injustice of the law, or in any other way to permit his personal opinions to affect the discharge of his official duty. It is not to be forgotten, either, that he is privileged — indeed that he ought — to resign his office whenever the conditions imposed are in such conflict with his personal views as to prevent his "obeying orders."

The proposition that, when they are in conflict, his pedagogical opinions must yield to the provisions of his legal contract, supports the corollary that the principal must make a thorough study into his own legal status. In case of dispute, it is far better that he be justified by statute law than by pedagogic theory; only when the law is silent may the theory speak. It is of prime importance that he shall know, in the administration of his school, what, by law: (1) he may do; (2) he must do; (3) he must not do, — *i.e.* his rights, his duties, and his limitations. As to his rights, he will exercise them without fear or favor; as to his duties, he will discharge them honestly and completely; as to his limitations, he will frankly admit them and respect

them; and all this, as has been suggested, he will do dispassionately.

This last proposition seems axiomatic; yet it is so very frequently violated in practice that further exposition may not be misplaced.

1. The legal rights of the principal will be questioned frequently by parents and occasionally by his official superiors; but, conscious only of the responsibility placed upon him, he will never "flaunt" his authority. The fact that he *is* right is all-sufficient — it does not need obtrusive reiteration. He has but to cite the law, not to justify nor vindicate it. Nor should he betray irritation that his authority has been called into question; that it should be, is but a natural feature in the topography of his position — it is all in the day's work.

2. The principal will perform his legal duties to the best of his ability and in the exercise of that judgment for which he is paid and which, it is to be assumed, he possesses. But always will he be subject more or less to petty interference based upon the contrary assumption, that his administrative judgment, because, forsooth he is a descendant of Ichabod Crane, is not quite so reliable as is that

of the "business" man with equal responsibilities. It is a curious fact that the member of a Board of Education, who, in his private business, would not hold his department heads responsible for results without leaving them unhampered in working out the details of their respective departments, will appoint a man to the principalship of a public school, hold him for results, and then seriously interfere with the detailed work of his office.[1] Happily, this state of affairs seems to be gradually righting itself, probably through the increasing ability of school men to demonstrate their fitness for responsibility. This is officially recognized by law in many cities.[2] But the judgment of the best of business men occasionally goes wrong, and there is

[1] "The question why there is not the same advance in the work and methods of the schools as there is in the work and methods of the industrial, commercial, and business institutions has never received the serious thought and consideration of a rational and thinking public it deserves." — EDWIN F. MOULTON, former Superintendent of Instruction, Cleveland.

[2] "Principals of schools are the responsible administrative heads of their respective schools. . . ." — New York City, By-Laws, Sec. 43, par. 1.

"Principals of schools are the responsible administrative heads of their respective schools." — Philadelphia, Rules, XVII, Sec. 1.

"The principal of each school is vested with authority to carry

no reason why the principal should not be allowed a small percentage of "errors" without being condemned utterly. The point to be emphasized here is the attitude of the principal toward his own administrative mistakes. He must frankly recognize them, cheerfully acknowledge them, faithfully repair them, and progressively prevent their recurrence. If he indulge in any irritation, he must be sure that it is directed toward himself, where it rightfully belongs.

3. The legal limitations of the principal are many, — in fact, it might be argued that in public positions generally, the higher the office, the greater the number of limitations which surround it, — and they should be recognized more promptly and more clearly by the principal himself than by any one else. He should be the first, when occasion arises, to point them out; at least, he should be the last to show feeling because they exist. This, of course, does not preclude his questioning them

into effect the rules and orders of the School Board. . . ." — Louisville, Rules, Art. I, Sec. 3, Rule 1.

"Principals shall be held responsible for the general management of their several schools." — Indianapolis, Rules, Art. XIV, Sec. 1.

"The principal shall have the supervision and control of his school. . . ." — Jersey City, Rules, Principals, I.

intelligently and dispassionately, in his extra-contractual capacity as an educational expert, but this, again, belongs to his general relation.

Specific instances illustrative of the above principles could be multiplied, but two will suffice. (1) The New York State law provides that no pupil shall be admitted to a public school unless he has been properly vaccinated. Many physicians and others agitate for a repeal of this law, sincerely disbelieving in the efficacy of vaccination. Protest is occasionally made by the parent to the principal that his child "ought" to be admitted without having been vaccinated. The parent may be openly vehement or insidiously persuasive. It is clear that the principal has the single duty of refusing to admit the child. He may himself agree with the parent as to the law, may be one of the agitators for its repeal, or he may believe thoroughly in the law and regard the parent's fears as sheer foolishness; but in his office he simply states the law, unmoved, by either vehemence or persuasion, to any display of emotion. (2) The by-laws in a certain city provided that no teacher should leave the school building at the noon intermission without the consent of the principal. The rules were amended so that the teachers might leave unless expressly required by the principal to remain. This, it is seen, was a limitation upon the former power of the principals: formerly, the initiative and the burden of proof were upon the teachers; latterly, upon the principals. Some principals assiduously refrained

from letting their teachers know of the change, not liking to acknowledge even this slight limitation upon their authority. Others immediately notified their teachers of the new status.[1] Although a trivial example apparently, it points the distinction between administration by personal feeling and administration by dignified execution of law.

Enough has been said to establish the broad distinction between the general, philosophic duties of the principal and his specific, contractual duties. It is these latter which come properly within the purview of this volume, so that henceforward little direct reference will be made to the larger field. Throughout the subsequent discussion, the reader will scan the author's prose of technical details to the rhythm of his own personal ideals. For, after all, this general duty of the school man to the State is just this: endeavoring to give concrete expression to his own ideals. It is a personal rite, determined by character itself; yet a matter of moment, for — and we may say it sanely — the future of the race depends upon the character and progressive ideals of its educators.

[1] Louisville makes such action mandatory. "The principal . . . shall immediately inform the teachers under his charge of any amendments to the Rules which relate to the duties of teachers." — Rules, Art. I, Sec. 3, Rule 1.

CHAPTER III

THE PRINCIPAL AND THE PUBLIC

IT is a very concrete and personal public with which the principal comes into daily intercourse. Most numerous and most important of all the visitors to the school are the parents of the pupils therein. The spirit in which they are received, it must be confessed, varies considerably in different schools. One extreme type of principal assumes that as he is the expert and the parents are laymen, the affairs of the school are his business alone, and consequently that the parent has completely fulfilled his function when he has enrolled his child in the school. Some parents, by nature, and most parents when brought to it, will accept this status. If Dorothy does not learn her lessons, "Well," say they, "it is the business of the school to teach her"; if Richard misbehaves, it is no concern of theirs, "Are not the teachers paid to discipline him?" Technically and abstractly, this relation between school and parents is correct, and under certain idealized conditions perhaps tenable. But practi-

cally it cannot be maintained. A principal cannot consistently disregard the parents and successfully conduct his school on this basis. To attempt to do so implies that he would never enlist the coöperation of parents, nor even report to them upon the standing of pupils; and that his contractual limitations are few and his general obligations scantily recognized.

The type of principal at the other extreme is he who questions his own professional equipment, who, like some of his patrons, believes that "any one can teach," and who supinely surrenders to the exactions of unreasonable parents. Parents respond just as readily to this attitude as to the other. If the principal questions his own technical ability, why should they respect it? Moreover, there is something of the teacher in every one. The average American father has "views" on teaching — which, of course, in the long run is good for the cause of true education — and the average American mother thinks that her child, at least, can be educated without training. It is natural that there should be occasional differences of opinion between principal and parents. Is he to ignore the parents or abdicate in their favor? Surely, neither. He may have both their coöperation and his own independence.

The principal should seek the coöperation of the parents because: (1) usually his contract either explicitly or implicitly requires it; (2) the legitimate interest of the parent in the school should be respected;[1] (3) the school should "recognize always the superiority of the home and its sacredness, and under no circumstances weaken the authority of the parent";[2] and (4) better results in instruction and discipline can be obtained with it than without it. He should maintain his own independence because: (1) his contract holds him and not the parents responsible for the work and results of his school; (2) he is better equipped technically than any parent, or else should not hold his office; and (3) the parents will the better respect him and the more intelligently coöperate with him.

How he is to strike the balance between the demands of these two duties is one of the principal's problems which requires early solution. We may briefly dispose of the matter of the maintenance of his own administrative authority. This is dependent mainly upon his courteous but firm stand

[1] "The school is a halfway house between home and the world." — P. A. BARNETT, "Common Sense in Education and Teaching," London, 1902, p. 48.

[2] Gilbert, *op. cit.*, p. 225.

with the individual parent, as occasion arises. To him he may explain exactly what his contractual obligations are, how necessary it is that any institution shall be consistently administered by a responsible executive, and how much better the very interests of the parent and his children are conserved by vesting the principal with a measure of independence than by submitting the management of the school to the exactions of outsiders.

But the principal and his school need the sympathetic coöperation of parents singly and collectively. This is to be attained measurably by his attitude toward individual parents as he meets them in the ordinary course of school business. By his manner and speech he may convince them that their interest in the school is welcomed and appreciated. But since most citizens have an inadequate comprehension of the work of the school, gained secondhand through the reports of their own or their neighbors' children, the principal cannot depend solely upon the influence he exerts through these chance meetings with the occasional visitor. If the coöperation is to be intelligent and fruitful, he must take formal means of soliciting it.

1. He may constantly advertise — through the

pupils, at school exercises, at public meetings — the fact that he recognizes that the school is a public institution and belongs to the people, and hence, that it is their privilege to familiarize themselves with its work. They must be made to feel that they have a standing invitation to visit the school for the purpose of investigation, and that when they arrive they will be welcome. If the business man can be brought to spend an hour in the class room observing the regular work of the teacher and pupils, he is much more likely to become a sympathetic supporter of the school and of the cause of public education than if subjected to hours of academic argument.

It may be objected that the business of the school should not be interfered with to this extent, that the classes should not be disturbed in their work, and that the principal cannot give the time to visitors. In actual practice these objections are scarcely valid, because the response to the principal's invitation, however heartily and persistently it may be given, is usually anything but overwhelming. If each class had but a single visitor daily, a school of forty classes would receive nearly eight thousand visitors in the course of a year. The presence of a caller, or even of a number of callers, ought not to be a source of embarrassment to either teacher or pupils, who, with practice, would

learn to welcome the visitor cordially, disregard him as a disturbing factor, and speed him on his way, enlightened and pleased.[1] As to the demand upon the principal's time, if he found that the number of visitors reached a serious total, he could readily enlist the services of older pupils to act, successfully and with profit to themselves, as hosts and guides.

2. He may organize school exhibits, special exercises, and other meetings, to which parents are particularly and formally invited. The following general suggestions are submitted: —

(1) In a large school the visitors may be received in groups, those who are interested in pupils in certain grades, for instance, being invited for certain different times and dates.

(2) Evening meetings have the advantage of enabling more of the men to attend. Daytime meetings have the advantage of permitting the exhibit of regular class exercises.[2]

[1] Superintendent Chancellor discusses the phase of the subject which considers that "the chief value of the visitor's appearance in the class room is in arousing the pupils." — "Our Schools," p. 121.

[2] "The means for making the school more effective in the home lives of its pupils are chiefly two. One of these is mothers' meetings. These are held in the schools of many of our cities. They are especially valuable in the poor and foreign sections, since they bring the school and home into mutual sympathy, teach the mothers how to

(3) A carefully arranged programme should be provided.

(4) Addresses by men and women of local or other prominence are extremely valuable.

(5) An exhibit of the regular work of the pupils usually proves an attraction. This may include not only the written and tangible products, but also oral, musical, manual, and gymnastic exercises. In this case, each parent should be brought as close as possible to his own child's work.

(6) Teachers should not use the occasion to make any adverse criticism of pupils to their parents. They should say only the good things about them, leaving anything unfavorable for a special interview at some other time.

(7) Meetings gain in importance by coming not too frequently, and by being held on some significant date, such as the anniversary of the opening of the school.

(8) The work of receiving and caring for visitors on these occasions may be distributed among the teachers, committees of whom may attend to the

care for the physical and moral needs of their children, and implant in the homes some of the school's ideals." — GEORGE EDMUND MYERS, *Pedagogical Seminary*, Vol. XIII, 1906, p. 456.

different features of the meeting. Older pupils can be drafted for service as ushers, etc.

3. He may inspire the organization of Parents' Associations and act with them for the benefit of the school. The meetings of such an association will differ from those called by the principal, in that the principal will cease to exercise his authority as such and become only an incidental factor in the proceedings. The less conspicuous the part he takes in the meetings, the better able will he be to maintain a position coördinate with the association as a whole. Such an organization may do much for a school, not alone in rendering moral support, but also in raising money for decorations and equipment supplementary to that officially provided. But there is also the chance that, through ignorance of conditions or through personal ambitions or jealousies of members, the association may take some action which in effect is an interference with the principal's contractual authority. At such a time the principal must turn the enthusiasm of the association into more legitimate and profitable channels. This he can more easily and effectively do if he has previously refrained from discussing measures voluntarily from the floor during meetings.

4. He may on occasion formally request the coöperation of the individual parent on behalf of his children. These occasions, arising chiefly from lapses of pupils in their work or behavior, are later discussed in their appropriate connections.

But coöperation is not always the keynote struck by the parent in his song of the school. So long as children are incompetent witnesses, so long as it is a passion with some people to "shoot first and argue afterward," and so long as teachers are terrene, and share human frailties, just so long will there arise frequent misunderstandings between school and parents. Hence we must consider, however reluctantly, the case of the parent with a grievance; and to get started aright we must go back to the fundamental relation of the principal to his school. The schools as we have noted are an instrument of the State. The State supports the school. The State pays the salaries of the teachers for ministering to its children. Reduced to homelier language, the parents of the pupils in his school are the principal's employers. Yet they are such only in the collective sense, although many of them will attempt to convince him that they are so individually. The principal will receive the parent

with a grievance, not alone with the respect due him as a gentleman, but also with the respect due a member of the great firm of The State, and will give him the attention necessary to secure justice for him, his child, and the school. But when the parent strives to secure for his child some specific consideration which is not his due and to grant which would be an injustice to the children of the other partners of the firm of The State, then must the principal stand steadfast against the parent's plea that he is a taxpayer and pays the principal's salary.

Occasionally the unreasonable parent with the "taxpayer" argument aggressively foremost must be led to solve this little problem in the rule of three: "The amount of his taxes" is to "the total amount of taxes for the city" as x is to "the principal's salary." x, being his share of "payment" of the principal's salary, usually works out to some fraction of a cent.

It must not be supposed that all parents, or even any large number of them, who visit schools are unreasonable. The great majority of them are quite the otherwise, intelligent, well-meaning, and helpful. But unfortunately the unreasonable parent exists and must be reckoned with, and as it is the "exceptional" case that makes the serious problem in school administration, the

emphasis must be placed here, as elsewhere, upon the exceptional occurrence.

The first rule to follow in dealing with an unreasonable parent is to continue to assume that he is, or is going to become, reasonable. Many of the disputes which arise between the parents and the school are due to misunderstanding or lack of understanding on the parent's part. Acting upon this wrong understanding, the parents write irritating letters to the teachers or principal. It is good policy to answer all such letters. The temptation is strong to ignore the communication, or else to reply in kind. If ignored, the parent is likely to follow the first letter with a second, written in greater temper, and perhaps follow that with a visit to the school, which he makes in no pleasant frame of mind, and which leads to a time-consuming interview. It is better that the school should take the parent at his word, assume that he is sincere in his communication regardless of the language in which it is couched, and reply with moderation and dignity and in the spirit of evident desire to correct the wrong impression of the school which the parent in some way has gained. Teachers should be trained to refer to the principal all communications of this

character received by them. It is safer and better that the principal shall judge what communications shall be answered, and decide upon the nature of the reply, than that the individual teacher, acting under impulse, shall hastily dash off a rejoinder. The parent, receiving from the principal a dignified reply to a letter written to a teacher, realizes that he is being taken seriously, that the teacher has behind her the voice and authority of the principal, and that the school is taking patient and sincere cognizance of his grievance, whether it be real or fancied. In most cases it is unreal, for it must be remembered that it is based upon the testimony of a child, — his child, — and such testimony is by the nature of the case biased and unreliable.[1] Hence it requires but a few brief statements of fact to set the parent straight. These given, he becomes a friend and supporter of the school; withheld or given in a highly colored or hot-tempered way, he becomes a critic of the school and instigator of further trouble.

[1] "Despite the fact that the law has always recognized the total incapacity of children to see, to remember, and to express the truth, the testimony of children regarding teachers continues to be taken. Such testimony is almost worthless." — CHANCELLOR, "Our Schools," p. 341.

That it may be realized that parents do send hastily written notes, based on error, a few such letters, actually received in a city school, are here given, together with the replies in each case: —

(1)

MISS SMITH,

It is unusual for Victor to get such a low mark in deportment I think you have made a great mistake. I have erased same on his card Trusting you will reconsider this. you will oblige me very much.

MRS. I. T. BROWN.

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100,
BROADWAY AND FULTON ST.,
New York, Oct. 5, 1907.

Mrs. I. T. Brown,
152 Fulton St., N.Y.

DEAR MADAM:

Miss Smith has referred to me your favor in regard to Victor's rating in deportment. I think you are under some misapprehension as to the status of our report cards. The card shows a pupil's standing at the close of the month, and is copied from the official record. That record represents work actually done by the pupil and not what we might wish he had done. I send you a duplicate of the card; will you kindly sign the same and return it to the school? If at any time you desire further information as to Victor's record than is indicated

by the report card, I should be glad to have you call here for a personal conference.

Respectfully yours,
HENRY JONES,
Principal.

(2) NEW YORK, Sept 30/07.

Public School No. 100
Mr. Henry Jones

DEAR SIR

I think that my Dauther Martha studies her home work as hard as any pupil in the school room. and I do not see why these notes are sent to my home Hopeing I will hear no more complants about her hearafter

I Remain verry Respectfully
R HAAS

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100,
BROADWAY AND FULTON ST.,
New York, Oct. 1, 1907.

Mr. R. Haas,
69 Division Ave., N.Y.

DEAR SIR:

Your favor of Sept. 30th is at hand. It is evident that you are much interested in the welfare of your daughter. We are too, and communications in regard to her progress are sent you in order to further her advancement. I am sure that you will see it in this light.

Respectfully Yours,
HENRY JONES,
Principal.

(3) Oct 17th 1907

Miss Green

DEAR MADAM

If this Grammar is not satisfactory what my daughter Elenora has written, I will have to bring this matter to a higher authority,

Resp' yours
WM WHITE

PUBLIC SCHOOL No. 100,
BROADWAY AND FULTON ST.,
New York, Oct. 18, 1907.

Mr. Wm. White,
235 Broadway, N.Y.

DEAR SIR:

Miss Green has referred to me your favor of the 17th. I do not understand your attitude. You certainly desire that Elenora may profit from her school work, and I believe that you wish to coöperate with us. Miss Green has your daughter's interests at heart. Shall we not leave it to her to decide what Elenora should or should not do?

Respectfully yours,
HENRY JONES,
Principal.

It is not presumed that the replies here given are the best that could be made, but they are submitted as illustrative of the principle that dignified and courteous answers may be written even to provoking letters.

The principal's correspondence should be written in complete form, as to heading, superscription, subscription, etc. If typewritten, so much the better, because carbon copies can thus be obtained, one for filing and one to be given to the teacher. It is but fair to the teacher that she should know what disposition has been made of a case that concerns her; moreover, the policy of the principal is thus best brought to the teacher's attention. The typewritten letter also strengthens the parent's impression that straightforward business attention has been accorded him. The parent who in anger has picked up the sheet of paper nearest at hand and hastily scribbled a note "calling down" the teacher, is sure to be impressed by a reply from the principal that is serious, official, authoritative, neatly and carefully arranged, and couched in polite and respectful language; thus is the parent educated, and thus does the pupil benefit through the higher ideal established in the home.

But unreasonableness comes to the school not alone in written form but frequently as a visit from the parent. Here, again, it must be the principal who receives the parent and adjusts his

complaint.[1] The same respectful dignity which he puts into a written reply he will put into his personal interview. He must impress upon the parent that he is desirous of securing right and justice, that he is ready to set matters straight, but that he is firm in his intention to keep the argument to facts and to the point at issue. He will decide whether the best interests of the case demand that the parent and the teacher shall meet. Usually it is better that they should. All interviews of a controversial nature between parent and teacher should be held in the office of the principal. No parent should be permitted to interview a teacher at her class room, and notice to this effect should be conspicuously posted in the hallways, and teachers trained to refuse to enter upon such an interview.

Many parents, innocently enough, go directly to the class room to give their message to the teacher. The message may be merely that Jane cannot come to-day because she has a toothache. In this case the risk is that, once inside the room, the fond mother and sympathetic teacher

[1] Mandatory in certain cities, *e.g.* Louisville: "Visitors to any school shall be admitted through the office of the principal only, and none shall be permitted to enter the class rooms except by consent of the principal." — Rule 7, Sec. 2.

will be led into an animated conversation relative to Jane's career, the last time Will had the measles or Tom the mumps, and how it is that Jane inherits her temper from her father and her studiousness from her mother, — all subjects of legitimate exposition, but not when fifty pupils are losing valuable time. In other cases, however, the tone of the parent is anything but mild, and there is danger of a stormy scene being enacted in the presence of pupils, despite the teacher's most skillful handling of the situation. So, in every case, the teacher should politely but firmly direct the parent to the principal's office immediately upon his appearance at the class-room door.

This gives the principal the opportunity of disposing of a great many cases without reference to the teacher and without taking her time from the class. Whether, during an interview between teacher and parent, the principal shall follow the conversation or even remain in the office, is a matter of judgment as to the individual case. If it is an amicable understanding between an intelligent parent and an experienced teacher, the principal may safely ignore its detail; if a storm seems imminent, the principal will do well to be on hand to pour the oil upon the troubled waters.

In spite of the utmost endeavor on the part of the principal and teachers to present fairly the side

of the school, occasionally an unreasonable parent remains unconvinced. His departure is made with the time-honored threat to "go higher" or to "report you to the Board of Education" or "to the Superintendent." The principal may wisely indicate that he recognizes the parent's right of appeal, that he would welcome the decision of disputed matters by those in higher authority, and that, if necessary, he will aid the parent in getting a hearing. Often this very attitude, astonishing to the parent, leads him to take a different view of the matter and prompts him to settle it without going beyond the principal's office.

Although parents constitute a majority of the principal's callers, he has many other visitors, some who have a legitimate claim upon him and some who have not. The former present no problem, but to deal with the latter requires constant devotion to the letter and the spirit of his contract. The essence of that contract is that the principal's time and energy belong, for value received, to the city and to the school; yet it is surprising how many people fail to grasp this fact, or, vaguely realizing it, imagine that the principal can be induced on their behalf to prove false to his trust. In most cities

such visitors are made the subject of a paragraph of the rules for the management of the schools. In some the prohibitory provision is couched in very general terms, as in Cleveland: "No teacher will permit time to be occupied in or about the school building, whether during school hours or not, by agents, lecturers, exhibitors, or any other person having a commercial end in view, and no advertisements will be distributed through the schools, except on authority of the superintendent." In others it is more detailed, as in Louisville: "No subscription or contribution for any purpose whatever shall be introduced into any school without the special consent of the board. No person shall be permitted to visit the schools except on business connected with the schools. No advertisements shall be read to the pupils of any school, on the premises thereof, or posted on the walls or fences of any school building, and no petition of any kind shall be circulated for signatures in any school of the city; and no agent or other person shall be permitted to enter any school premises for the purpose of exhibiting, either to teachers or pupils, any book or article offered for sale, or taking subscriptions for same. No list of pupils shall be

given by principals or teachers to any person except on the order of the superintendent." Either with or without such rules, too much of a principal's time is spent in merely denying the requests of persons who thus seek to use the public schools for private ends. In many cases the purpose is so cleverly veiled that the principal may for the moment be deceived. For instance, the courteous actor who offers "at no expense whatever" to produce scenes from the Shakespearean play studied by the pupils in one of the grades. Certainly here is a philanthropic soul, a devoted worker in the cause of public education, who would thus relieve the tedium of the school most pleasantly, and all "at no expense whatever." But in another five minutes it develops that the "consideration" is that printed programmes shall be distributed to the pupils, and behold! on their reverse side — or is it, after all, the obverse side — the advertisement of a private school bidding for pupils.

Nice questions arise in some situations as to the propriety of complying with requests of visitors. For example, a lawyer demands to know the address of a certain pupil in order that he may further a client's interest in some court action. He may

represent that it will be greatly to the advantage of the pupil himself if the information be provided. The principal will be following a safe and wise procedure if he declines to deliver such information except upon court order in due form, or upon the formal demand of an official superior.

Visitors also to be considered are those who, exercising some political or social influence, seek some special privilege which they know could not be accorded them on the intrinsic merits of the case. Such a one is the gentleman who presents his card indicating that he is Chairman of Something or Second Assistant Secretary to Somebody, and who has just "stepped in to settle that little matter of the suspension of my friend's boy." Of course the direct and perhaps the best method of disposing of the interloper is to refuse positively to treat with him on any matters which are without his legitimate province; but if the gentleman is jovially inclined, as is usually the case, perhaps a sufficiently logical procedure, and one which will show him the absurdity of his position, is to take him at his word, accept his guarantee that the boy in question will behave in the future, and then to keep him — instead of the boy's father, who has surrendered his control

of his own affairs — posted as to the boy's conduct.

If the principal will ever bear in mind that he is in the high service of the pupils of his school, but of *all* his pupils *equally*, the problems relating to the troublesome visitor, like so many others, pretty clearly indicate their own solution.

CHAPTER IV

THE PRINCIPAL AND THE AUTHORITIES

"OBEDIENCE alone gives the right to command," says Emerson. In proportion as the principal accords respect, courtesy, and obedience to those in positions of official superiority will he command the respect, courtesy, and obedience of his official subordinates. No principal or teacher is expected to surrender his professional opinions for his monthly stipend; the exploitation of those opinions, however, is, as we have already noted, not a contractual privilege, but a general and extra-contractual duty. As a citizen he has a citizen's right to be heard in the discussion of general educational policy. As a lecturer and a writer he has the right of freedom of speech and of press. But as the principal of a certain school in a certain school system he owes official allegiance to the legally constituted authorities of that system, however much their views may differ from his own.

The ultimate source of authority is, of course, the "people," but the exercise of this authority is dele-

gated through organized government by way of the State to the municipality and thence to the school board. This last transfer is made by a variety of methods in the selection of board members: directly, by popular vote, as in Denver, Indianapolis, Minneapolis, Rochester, and Worcester; or indirectly, either by appointment by the mayor, as in New York, San Francisco, Jersey City, and Albany; or by appointment by some other official or elected body, as in Philadelphia, Richmond, Norfolk, and Atlanta. The school board represents the public estimate of the schools and the public purpose in regard to them. Its function is chiefly constructive and legislative. To secure the execution of its legislative acts a further transfer of authority is made to administrative officers. "The circumstances of the case naturally and quickly separate the duties of administration into two great departments: one which manages the business affairs, and the other which supervises the instruction." [1] Thus is the principal brought into relations, varying in their directness, with three classes of authorities: the board members, the business executives, and the supervisors of instruction.

[1] Report of the Committee of Fifteen, p. 115.

1. The direct contractual relation of the principal to his school board is usually slight, orders emanating therefrom coming to him by way of the executive offices. Nevertheless, no principal should be ignorant of the personnel of the board or unacquainted with at least a few of its members. Whatever relation he may be fortunate enough to sustain with individual members, it should at least be mutual in its character; in the highest sense he should give and take. His "general" duty to the State justifies his influencing such members in broad matters of educational policy, and that influence will be important and valuable in proportion as his specific administration of his school inspires confidence in his professional judgment. On the other hand, it is equally important that the principal himself shall profit from the relation. Board members almost invariably are laymen (as distinguished from school men), and represent the lay view of the schools.[1] It is the business of the principal to evaluate the intelligence, integrity, and sincerity of each board member whom he knows, and with the resulting coefficient as a factor to equate his

[1] Superintendent Chancellor discusses very fully the personnel of school boards in "Our Schools," p. 12 *et seq.*

own views and those of the "spokesman of the people." His own opinions are usually much in need of just such tempering as comes by blending them with the convictions of common-sensed, practical, everyday men of affairs, and more than one such man is to be found in every board of education. When based on mutual respect, the friendship of the board member and the school man must inevitably result favorably to society and to the particular schools in which both are interested.

2. Complete separation of the duties of administration into two departments concerning respectively the general and the professional business, together with concentration of authority and responsibility in a single head for each department, has been effected in but a few cities. Indianapolis, in addition to a Superintendent of Instruction, provides a Business Director who "shall be the executive officer of the board"; Cleveland has its Director of Schools; and Boston, its Business Agent. In most cities, however, the business side of the work brings the principal into contact with the heads of various bureaus — supplies, buildings, care of build-

ings, etc. — and their subordinates. They represent the department as concerned with its material needs, and frequently magnify that phase of the work. Rather, it seems that they occasionally suffer from a form of mental lippitude which makes the motto "The schools exist for the pupils" read "The pupils exist for the schools." It is but natural that people dealing with supplies instead of with pupils should come to feel that pupils should adapt themselves to the supplies; and that the building bureau should expect the pupils to grow to fit the buildings; just as other elements of the "system" sometimes err by creating the impression that the schools exist for the janitors, or for the teachers, or for the principals, or for the superintendents. Where, in the material departments, there is this tendency to "put the cart before the horse," it is the duty of the principal to keep the true interests of the pupils before the official eye. Even if there be no specific rule to that effect, the principal will be following logical procedure if he conserves these interests of his pupils through his "instructional" superiors. It is better that he should present the claims of the school in the matter of equipment and supplies, to his superintendent, and through

him reach the proper departments, than to deal with them directly.

3. The one official of the school system with whom the principal will have the most direct and most frequent relations is his professional superintendent, who, in the language of Superintendent Chancellor, "is the representative of the schools, their accredited ambassador to the public . . . the central officer of the school system." [1] In the large systems this relationship is complicated by the existence of associate or assistant superintendents.[2] Only by a proper balance of influence between the superintendent and the principal can the best results accrue. Presumably the principal has the grasp of local needs [3] and detailed insight into the many corners of his school, while the super-

[1] "Our Schools," p. 133.

[2] New York has thirty-four; Philadelphia, fifteen; Chicago, eight; Cleveland and Kansas City, each seven; Boston, six; St. Louis, five; San Francisco, four.

[3] "There is no more important office in our whole school organization than that of the principal. Our whole system in its daily working is based on the idea that the principal is the one in whom the highest local authority is vested. Great authority is connected with duties correspondingly great." — SUPERINTENDENT F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Proceedings, National Educational Association, 1899, p. 302.

intendent has a clearer view of the broad needs of the system, and an intelligent oversight of the many schools which, coördinated one with another, make up that system. Both of these two view points and these two forms of supervision contribute proportionately to the welfare of the pupils, and both are essential. The relation between superintendent and principal of necessity implies courteous consideration on both sides. The stronger the superintendent the larger the problems with which he concerns himself, and in their solution he is entitled to the earnest coöperation of all his subordinates. As the principals come nearer to his problems than do the class teachers, it is from them that he may expect the most sympathetic assistance and loyalty. The principal owes this allegiance to his superintendent, and will consistently render it in full.

The premise is, however, that the superintendent is one who, by nature and training, so regards his office that supervision on any petty basis is impossible with him. His very largeness of attitude and action may lead him into minor errors of form and judgment, but his mental breadth will make these thoroughly forgivable, and in no way impair the devotion and loyalty of his subordinates. But if the

superintendent is one who constantly violates the canons of supervision, then the position of the principal is indeed difficult, for loyalty can be founded only upon respect for official ability and personal character. In other words, there are two sides to the subject of loyalty; if a superintendent is disloyal to his principals, he can scarcely complain if he forfeits their loyalty to him.

It would be more convenient in this discussion to assume that no superintendent ever strains the allegiance of his principals; but the facts do not support this assumption, and, as we are considering "practical" school administration, we cannot escape the subject. Exceptional in its occurrence as the situation fortunately is, when it arises, the principal confronts a puzzling but vital problem, and it is from the standpoint of his office that we must review the conditions. There are three chief principles of good supervision which a careless superintendent is most likely progressively to violate.

1. The superintendent may exercise unnecessarily detailed supervision. This usually implies that supervision of large problems is beyond his ability. If he is incapable of handling such matters as securing better school accommodations, raising the quali-

fications of teachers, attracting public opinion to the support of the schools, solving some of the perplexing modern educational problems, then must he fill in his time showing principals and teachers where to place the decimal point in a multiplication example. "The superintendent should have a large supervision over methods and over teaching, but he should be generous and liberal enough to leave all principals great freedom in working out their own problems. It seems to me he ought never to impose a rule of method upon his schools." [1] "If a principal is worthy of his position, he is competent to maintain the efficiency of his school; and while held rigidly responsible for results, he should be granted all proper freedom of action. It is a great injustice to exact certain results and yet to withhold means of attaining them." [2] "The most current conception of an efficient supervisor or superintendent is one who claims freedom for himself and grants it to others." [3]

2. The superintendent may fail to respect the

[1] Earl Barnes, Report of Committee of Fifteen, p. 202.

[2] William H. Payne, "Chapters on School Supervision," New York, 1875, p. 30.

[3] Samuel T. Dutton, "School Management," New York, 1903, p. 13.

administrative headship of the principal. A university president of large experience tells us that ". . . in dealing with the principal the superintendent should make his power just as little felt as possible. The consciousness of the principal as responsible head of the school should not be disturbed. On the other hand, the supreme power of the superintendent need not be abandoned." [1] Translated into even more practical terms, this means that "the superintendent should supervise the principals, and the principals should supervise their own schools." [2] Very clearly is the principle stated by the Boston School Committee in its annual report for 1906 (p. 20): "The principals as the responsible administrative heads of their respective schools or districts are charged with the organization thereof, and the supervision and direction of their subordinates and pupils, and the general maintenance of order and discipline. Thus, in the administration of the school system, the teachers are responsible to the principals, the principals to the assistant superintendents, the assistant superintendents to the superintendent, and finally, the superintendent

[1] J. G. Schurman, Report of Committee of Fifteen, p. 222.

[2] Colonel F. W. Parker, Report of Committee of Fifteen, p. 219.

to the board; and this principle of direct accountability on the part of subordinates to superiors exists throughout the entire code." In the practical application of this principle, the ultimate authority of the superintendent is never called into question; it is merely a matter of administrative *method*. It should be strictly adhered to by a superintendent, and strict adherence expected by the principal, not because of any personal feeling as to the importance of the principal's office, but solely because it is a valid principle, compliance with which conserves the best interests of the pupils.

It is hardly necessary to defend the principle or even to illustrate it. Pupils should have *consistent* treatment from teachers; anything else is wasteful. It follows that teachers should receive orders only that are definite, consistent, and in accord with all correlated details. It is more probable that they will be such if they come through the principal than if the superintendent deals directly with the teachers.

3. The superintendent may render *ex parte* judgments against the principal. No thoroughly competent executive can please every one in the administration of his office. As a principal deals directly or indirectly with hundreds or thousands

of people, frequent complaints are sure to be made of his acts. But there is a vast difference between a complaint and a conviction. A superintendent cannot justly condemn a principal merely because complaints are made of him; it is his duty to condemn him if investigated complaints convict the principal of wrongdoing. If a superintendent considers a complaint at all, he should do so seriously, and investigate it impartially. For instance, a teacher should always have the right of appeal from the decisions of the principal; but this does not mean that the superintendent will gossip with a teacher about her principal, sympathize with her in her criticism of him, or give an offhand verdict against him. The principal, in this as in all cases, should be given due notice of the complaint and an opportunity to be heard. Only after all the evidence is in should the superintendent render any decision.

It is in one or more of these three directions that a superintendent is most liable to violate the rules of supervision. The occasional slip, unimportant and clearly unintentional, the principal is under no obligation to recognize or resent; but where the violations are made continually, the principal, for

the sake of his school, cannot afford to overlook them.[1] His duty in that case is to present his view of the matter *first of all* to the superintendent in question. If it concerns unnecessarily detailed supervision, he will present the academic argument against it, reënforced by specific instances within his own school wherein such supervision has impaired the work of the school, and consequently the progress of the pupils. If it concerns failure to recognize the administrative headship of the principal, he will show how such procedure is wasteful, and will cite, by analogy, the discipline in well-ordered organizations other than school systems, and his own attitude toward his teachers (see p. 83). If it concerns the expression of *ex parte* judgments, he will appeal for justice and fair play on broad lines of the propriety of judicial procedure in the investigation of complaints and of consideration of only competent testimony.

If the principal finds that the superintendent persists in ignoring his presentment, it is clearly

[1] I do not consider the extreme case, unfortunately existent, but happily rare, where a superintendent stultifies himself by bringing personal animus into his dealings with a principal. Such a condition, like any other crisis in the life of an individual, simply throws him back upon his fundamental resources of personal and private philosophy.

his business to appeal to the next higher authority, and, if necessary, by virtue of his "general" duty, to public opinion. Above all, he must be courteous, dignified, and dispassionate in his procedure; and he will be guided by local conditions and by certain general considerations, among which are the following: —

(1) His duty to conserve the equilibrium of his school will lead him to postpone action toward relieving the strain until it approaches the breaking point.

(2) On the other hand, his duty to conserve the integrity of his school demands that it shall ultimately be administered along lines of rational policy.

(3) He will stand upon the ground that "the right of appeal is an essential feature of democracy. Without it there can be no freedom and equality." [1]

(4) He will sink personal considerations in his duty toward his pupils; the dictates of his conscience must overrule his natural and legitimate ambition to win favor from his superiors.

(5) He will profit by the wrong attitude of his superior by reëxamining himself to see that he, in

[1] Chancellor, *op. cit.*, p. 154.

turn, is maintaining the proper attitude toward his subordinates.[1]

The principal, charged with carrying out the orders of his superior officers, finds two divergent methods of interpretation and action open to him: he will be either a strict constructionist or a loose constructionist. It would appear from the history of the contest between the two ideas, as expressed in American politics, that both attitudes are tenable, though at variance. The principal should adopt a consistent policy along one or the other of these lines: if a strict constructionist, he will endeavor to obey to the letter every rule and every instruction from higher authority; if a loose constructionist, he will justify exercising his own judgment on the ground of the public interest. Following either, he is likely to encounter trouble: in the one case, there will come a time when his obedience displeases his superior and he is accused of error in judgment in spite of his technical righteousness; in the other case, he will be told that no exercise of his own judgment can condone official disobedience. His

[1] Cf. the principal's attitude toward his own mistakes (p. 32) and his attitude toward teachers (p. 83).

predicament is somewhat analogous to that of the locomotive engineer who is under orders to obey a hundred rules and regulations, absolute compliance with which would prevent his maintaining the schedule provided for his train: if he disobeys, he courts disaster and the wreck of his train; if he obeys, his train is always late and he loses his place.

For instance, the superintendent of one city censured principals by circular letter because many of them, complying with the rules of the school board, dismissed their pupils at noon in the midst of a very heavy storm. Part of his letter read: "Principals should use proper discretion in the interpretation of this (*sic*) by-law. The noon intermission could have been held from 12:30 until 1:30 P.M., or even from 1 until 2; and the afternoon session from 1 : 30 until 3 P.M., or from 2 until 3 P.M. The children should not have been sent into the street during a violent rain storm." There was no authority given to the principal by any by-law of the school board to change the session periods; and, moreover, the board has never, in the years subsequent to the incident recited, amended its by-laws to give this authority to the principals. But in the opinion of the superintendent the principals should have exercised discretion. On the other hand, if the same principals were to exercise equal discretion in the interpretation of certain other by-laws which are printed in the

manual in type of the same size as the rule as to sessions, the superintendent would promptly censure them for disobedience.

The principal cannot justify disobedience of instructions because his own opinion or his interpretation of public opinion does not indorse those instructions, responsibility for which is clearly and solely upon the person or persons issuing them. He should permit that burden to rest upon the proper shoulders, — which are usually quite capable of bearing it, — and be content to shoulder his own responsibilities, which are by no means few or unimportant.

Probably the safest course of action for the principal is to reduce the problem to its lowest terms, acting as a strict constructionist, except under the stress of an emergency. That is, he will give absolute obedience to all instructions except where, in an emergency unforeseen by the framer of the instruction, such obedience would endanger the physical welfare of the pupils. This reduces the liberty of action by the principal to the exercise of his own judgment as to the definition of "emergency," and leaves him the responsibility only of justifying his definition.

CHAPTER V

THE PRINCIPAL AND THE TEACHERS

"THE general success of a school depends very largely on the quality of its teaching force," says Payne.[1] Most important is it that the principal shall gather around him strong teachers. This he can do only by being strong himself. He must establish for himself such a reputation for ability, and especially for just and kindly treatment, that teachers will, when they have an option, choose to work in the school over which he presides. Under whatever system of appointment he may be working, whenever added effort will secure a better teacher, the principal must be ready to make that effort.

The personal equation of course enters; each principal will have his own particular teacher ideal. Teacher A may be excellent in the estimate of principal X, but not in that of principal Y. Teacher B may be as good a teacher, and yet not have the qualifications most esteemed by prin-

[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 36.

cipal X, though she is entirely satisfactory to principal Y. It is clear that X should get A into his school, and Y should get B; yet too frequently the reverse happens, either on account of the system of appointment, or because of the neglect or indifference of the principals concerned.

It is evident that in making a choice, even under the best of conditions, the principal seldom finds the ideal teacher; yet he will, more or less consciously, have such an ideal in mind, against which he will measure all candidates.

The subject of the ideal teacher has been a favorite theme with the pedagogues and the essayists. An extended chapter could not do justice to their mosaic manipulations of nouns and adjectives, but we may content ourselves with a very brief and partial survey. Baldwin[1] says the teacher must be gifted, cultured, devoted, progressive, and professionally trained. White[2] says she must have the intangible qualifications of personal magnetism and natural aptitude, and the tangible qualifications of good scholarship, skill in teaching and managing, heart power, will power, good eyes and ears, common sense, and moral character. Dutton[3] considers most important: personality, good health, duties out of school, intellectual

[1] Joseph Baldwin, "School Management and School Methods," New York, 1900, p. 30.

[2] Emerson E. White, "School Management," New York, 1893, p. 19.

[3] *Op. cit.*, p. 16.

fitness, moral qualities, sincerity, honesty, temperament, and strength as a social force. Chancellor [1] names as the important factors: good physique, buoyancy of spirit, cheerfulness, culture. Superintendent Edson includes in his ideal: character, skill, wisdom, appearance, health, and strength. Superintendent Lyon notes as most important, in ascending scale: scholarship, health, judgment, tact, character.[2]

The teacher is the product of the two factors, native ability and training. Her natural equipment consists of her physique, and that "vague, indefinite, spiritual quality" that we call personality. Her training gives her formal scholarship, general culture, and the more special equipment of professional and technical education. But it is only the actual test in the class room that can prove a teacher's value. The most experienced of supervisors, when limited in the forming of his opinion to a conference with a teacher, will occasionally err in his judgment as to her actual worth.

[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 127.

[2] A whimsically philosophical discussion of the Ideal Teacher will be found in the *Atlantic Monthly* for April, 1907, by Professor George Herbert Palmer, who says that the teacher must possess: (1) sympathetic imagination; (2) accumulated intellectual wealth; (3) power to invigorate life through learning; and (4) readiness to be forgotten.

Having secured the nearest available approach to the ideal, the next business of the principal is to see that the teacher is assigned to do that work for which she is best fitted. If the round pegs are in the square holes and the square pegs in the round holes, in any organization, it will lack stability and effectiveness. In accordance with this theory, the principal will study to place each teacher where she can give the most to the school, and at the same time be content and cheerful through interest in her work. As a rule, the inexperienced teacher should be given neither the first-year pupils nor those of the higher grades; and if there are all-boys' and all-girls' classes in the school, she should be given a class of girls. Yet there is an occasional beginner who seems immediately fitted for service in a difficult class of boys, and in that case the school should not be obliged to lose that service from her by reason of any rigid rule of assignment.

It is important for the principal to know his teachers. Kipling's subaltern in the "Brushwood Boy" is advised: "Get to know your men, young un, and they'll follow you anywhere. That's all you want — know your men." The success of a school will depend in large measure upon the intimacy

that is established between the principal and his teachers. If the relation is merely the formal business of the teacher rendering so many hours' service and the principal certifying that she does not shirk her work, the school may be well run, but it will surely lack that finer element which we call atmosphere. A cordial interest shown by the principal in both the personal and professional welfare of his teachers — a personal friendship that knows the teacher's ambitions, hopes, and limitations, and a professional comradery that implies a sympathetic understanding of the teachers' daily problems — will in due time bring about a maximum of effective result with a minimum of nerve strain for all concerned.

The chief duty of the principal toward his teachers is to help them serve their pupils; and in proportion as he impresses upon them his ability and willingness to do this, will he have the loyal support of his staff, and, in consequence, a school that will be recognized as doing much for its pupils. The formal assistance which he will give to teachers will be considered at some length later; let us first note the more informal phase of the relation between principal and teachers.

The new teacher will need and will welcome detailed and specific practical directions for her class-room guidance. But as she grows in professional skill and strength, the principal will less and less restrict her with detailed supervision, and more and more urge and encourage her to express herself in her work. He will see that as she progresses in years of service she makes a proportionate advance in personal growth and culture. On one hand he will note improvement in her work whenever he can, praise rather than censure, and by an example of cheerful optimism guide her over the rough places of her day's work. On the other hand, he will not let her settle into any smug conceit that she has "finished" her training and may spend the balance of her career running in one well-oiled groove. By example and precept the principal will encourage his colaborers to self-culture: maintaining an up-to-date teachers' library, stirring teachers to develop outside interests that shall enlarge their horizon and broaden their sympathies, leading them to recognize the need of plenty of outdoor exercise, encouraging them to make profitable friendships, stimulating them to independent study and thinking, and sending them to visit other schools.

The visitation of other schools should not be neglected nor should it be done perfunctorily. A teacher may gain by seeing better work than she herself is doing, thereby getting the stimulus to do better work herself; or, if she is an excellent teacher herself and is in a temporary despair over her own work, she may gain by seeing other teachers who are suffering similarly. In either case she should visit in the right spirit, knowing what she is going out for, getting it if she can, and if not, getting what she can.

The principal will find that his teachers are of three kinds,—those who do, those who don't, and those who are colorless. He will have to curb the first, prod the second, and labor with the third.

Many a painstaking, successful teacher contracts that disease which, for lack of a more expressive title, I must call "schoolitis." In her conscientious devotion and zeal she is eating, drinking, and sleeping "school." She takes home armfuls of spelling papers, compositions, and other written work, and pores over them into the late evening, coming to school the next day after a sleepless night. The principal must diagnose such a case

promptly, and apply the remedies heroically. The teacher must be trained to stay in school after session long enough to finish properly the day's work and to make an outline preparation for the work of the following day. No papers are to be taken out of the building, and when the teacher locks her desk, she must lock in it all the irritating detail of the school day, and walk out into the open air with a mind free from anxiety for the morrow. She must get a complete change of atmosphere during the evening, seeking recreation and pleasure; and enjoy a night's wholesome sleep. Her value to her class the next day will, in consequence, be far in excess of what it would have been had she corrected five times as many papers at the expense of a serious drain on her vitality.

On the other hand, the teacher who is willfully neglectful must be held to a strict accountability for her work and results, and brought as soon as possible to the right attitude and a realizing sense of her responsibilities and the seriousness of her business. Such a teacher, having positive qualities, is easily driven to putting her energies into the right direction, or else she is forced out of the profession because the principal can readily prove

her inefficient. The same may be said of the teacher who shows early in her career that she is hopelessly incompetent.

But the teacher who is negative rather than positively good or bad, who is passive, indifferent, and colorless, is a serious problem. She cannot be classed as incompetent, and dismissed on this charge; nor can she be regarded as a positive and profitable force in the school. With such, the principal can only struggle as best he may, charging her up to "profit and loss" on the school ledger, and reconciling himself, if necessary, by considering that "the poor ye have always with you."

By way of approach to the more formal methods of assisting teachers, let us consider the official attitude of the principal toward them.

The principal must make it a point at all times to respect the authority of the teacher. She must be recognized, and must be taught to recognize herself, as the administrative head of her class, just as the principal is the acknowledged administrative head of his school. Indeed, the principal will be, if anything, less jealous of his own administrative authority than he is solicitous to respect

that of the class teacher. The concrete application of this principle in the presence of pupils will do much, through the creation of an atmosphere, to further the general good discipline of the school.

For instance, in going into a class room to make an announcement to the pupils, the principal will interrupt the teacher and the work of the class only after saying, "Excuse me, Miss Blank; I wish to make an announcement to the class," or similar expression. When he wishes to send a pupil on an errand, he will ask permission to do so of the teacher of the class, and leave it to her to decide which pupil is to be selected. Or, if the principal wishes to know if a certain boy is in a certain class, he will not bolt into the room with the inquiry addressed to the class, but will quietly ask Miss Blank if the boy is there; if so, and he wishes to speak to him, he will ask Miss Blank to call him to the front.

Care about such seemingly unimportant matters may seem like unnecessary nicety, but it is care which yields much in results. The principal sacrifices none of his authority. The teacher knows well enough that the principal has the "right" to do these things in the more direct and abrupt way. She must already have gained a respect for him through his demonstrated ability; and these little courtesies in no way diminish that respect. The

large man does not need to advertise his authority; it is only the small man who is constantly asserting that he is to be respected. But the most practical result of all is that the pupils are keen to see that the teacher has an authority which even the principal respects, and their own respect for that authority is thus enlarged. The consistent practice of such formal courtesy is one way by which the principal gives notice to the pupils, and particularly to the unruly inclined pupils, that he stands directly behind the teacher ready to support her in maintaining the discipline of her class.

Not only will the principal respect the teacher's authority when in the presence of pupils, but he will further recognize it and impress it upon her in all his official dealings with her. At conferences he will defer to her judgment and carefully weigh her contributions. He will encourage her to express *herself* in her class-room methods and defend her own ideas, even when they are at variance with his. Says Payne,[1] "Perpetual interference in minor matters, which will usually work their own cure, is a capital fault in school management."

Nevertheless, there is much that the principal

[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 71.

can do in the planning of teachers' work, in the interest of both teachers and pupils. The carrying out of plans involves instructing teachers, and this subject merits consideration.

All instructions to teachers should be definite and to the point. The fewer they are, the more likely are they to be respected. They should not be hastily issued, but should be the result of careful deliberation, and should be reasonable and justifiable. In any system the teacher should at all times have the right of appeal from the decisions of the principal. Good teachers will never appeal from reasonable orders. If an order seems in any way mysterious, it is wise to explain the reason for issuing it whenever that is practicable. The right of principals to issue orders is not questioned, but teachers appreciate the principal's taking them into his confidence, and respond more heartily to directions, the justification for which they thoroughly understand. Teachers should be trained to distinguish between orders and suggestions, and the principal's statements should be so phrased as to show clearly which they are.

For example, the principal may *direct* that teachers report for certain duty at a certain time. If they willfully

fail to comply with this direction, they are guilty of insubordination and should be treated accordingly. He may *suggest* that teaching a certain geography lesson with a globe is better than teaching it with a map. If any teacher fails to follow this suggestion, she is in no sense insubordinate, and, provided her preference for the other method is sincere, should in no way be criticised for disregarding the principal's suggestion. If the principal should conclude that there are sufficient reasons why his method *ought* to be followed, then he may prescribe that method and direct that it be used, which immediately changes the character of the action of any teacher who might then insist on using the contrary method.

Instructions may be written or oral. Where they need little explanation, or where they are of permanent value or even of temporary importance, they should be written, and their receipt acknowledged by each teacher, who should sign her name or initials to the sheet.[1] The value of such receipt is that the principal can readily check up the circulation of his instruction sheet, and also can convince

[1] Such sheets should never be circulated by means of a pupil-monitor except in the case of notices which are to be read by the teachers to their pupils. It is well to caution the teachers generally as follows: "Do not permit pupils to see notices to teachers. Do not take them into your confidence as to any of the limitations put upon school officers and teachers."

the forgetful teacher who has forgotten to comply with a particular instruction that the fault is her own. The circular instructions should be kept for some time, not alone for reference and retrospective study by the principal, but also to provide against the rare but troublesome case of the willfully insubordinate teacher against whom he may some time be forced to prefer charges, in which event the acknowledged receipt of instructions becomes valuable documentary evidence.

Oral instructions are given to individual teachers or to various groups. The teachers' meeting should be for either instruction or conference, and it is well to make a careful distinction. When it is for the giving of instructions only, the teachers should clearly so understand it. The principal should be careful in giving such instructions not to wander, and yet to take time enough to clear up any difficulties.

As for the conference, certain principles are valid: —

1. Do not have too many such meetings. An occasional, enthusiastic conference is worth more than five formal meetings coming at stated and frequent intervals.

The number of meetings is limited by rule in some cities, *e.g.* Jersey City: "He (the principal) may require his assistants to remain after school, not to exceed one hour each week, for instruction or conference." — Rules, IV. On the other hand, Minneapolis *requires* that the principal " at least once in each week shall hold meetings of his assistant teachers for conference upon the work in hand." — Rules, Sec. 26.

2. Encourage teachers to talk. Emphasize the thought that a conference is not a monologue, and that all are invited and expected to contribute.

3. Be patient with the diffident teachers or those of slower understanding; get their view point and sympathize with their limitations and their endeavors.

4. Do not let the subject get away. While general discussion is to be encouraged, it must be kept germane to the subject in hand.

5. Get something for yourself. It must be accounted an unsatisfactory meeting if you do not bring from it some new idea, some fresh impulse, or some happy inspiration, which shall in time duly react upon your school.

As to the comparative value of the different-sized groups, it may be said that in the *school* con-

ference the principal will exercise his larger influence, establish his standards, set forth his ideals, and create his atmosphere; in the *grade* or *group* conference, he will do his most effective detailed work; and in the *individual* conference, he will correct the personal errors, encouraging the faltering teacher and inspiring the strong to further successes.

This leads to that particular form of instruction which we call criticism. Criticism of a teacher should not be made at all until after the principal has carefully thought out the matter; but if his decision is that criticism is needed, then he must administer it promptly and courageously. It must always be given in a judicial, dispassionate attitude; never is the shortcoming of the teacher to be construed as an offense against the principal. Never should the principal make an *ex parte* judgment; he should be sure of his ground before treading on it. Never should he criticise, and rarely should he instruct, teachers in the presence of their pupils. The individual transgressor among the teachers should be dealt with individually; she and her transgression should not be reached through a general criticism applied to all. Oral criticism is usually more satisfactory than written. The written

note is cold, formal, and often misleading. The conference gives opportunity for question and answer and a better understanding. Verbal expression can give a sympathetic meaning to criticism which the written word cannot convey. In such a conference the principal must be frank and truthful. He must make his appeal to the teacher as her official adviser and personal friend, and lead her to correct herself rather than dogmatically to superimpose his own formal instructions.

The planning of teachers' work may be both on the quantitative and on the qualitative sides, though in general it may be said that we plan quantity and inspire quality.

(*A*) On the quantitative side, the chief lines of planning are: —

1. Uniform interpretation of the course of study.
2. Subdivision of the work of the term.
3. Teachers' records of plans and progress.
4. Daily time schedules.

1. Interpretation of the Course of Study

The principal works through a course of study established by higher authority for all the schools

in the system. There can be great difference in the interpretation of the curriculum by different principals within the same system; and the principal should, and usually does, have the authority to interpret and modify the course to suit the peculiar needs of his particular locality. It is the duty of the principal to see that teachers emphasize the proper topics in the course and do not lose time by a disproportionate attention to the relatively unimportant items. Teachers, when in doubt as to how intensively they should consider a topic in any subject, should ask for a ruling, — and they should be encouraged to ask, — and his rulings, in turn, should, through their consistency, bring about a uniform and well-balanced treatment of all subjects throughout the various grades of the school.

2. Subdivision of the Term's Work

The work of the term should be subdivided, perhaps into month's work, but probably not to any finer subdivision, in order: (1) that the teacher shall not mismanage her term's work by an incorrect estimate of the time it takes to cover various topics. Without such a plan the teacher is apt to give too detailed attention through the early weeks

of the term, and discover too late that the required work left undone cannot possibly be completed in the remaining days; (2) that the pupils in different classes of the same grade may work along approximately the same lines, taking up topics in about the same order, thus making easy the transfer of pupils from class to class within the grade during the term.

Such subdivision of work should be planned by the principal and teachers of the grade working together. The teachers should be brought into it, first because they are intimately acquainted with the detail work and are usually able to counsel wisely; and secondly, because they will more readily and successfully carry out a plan which they have helped to make.

The resulting plan should be clear and definite, and yet not too detailed. Furthermore, it should be considered, as should all plans of the school, as tentative and subject to immediate change whenever such change is clearly advisable. Upon the beginning of each term the principal might well have a series of grade conferences in which the subdivision plans in each grade would be considered and amended to such an extent and in such manner as the experience of the term past seemed to warrant.

3. Plan and Progress Records

Teachers may be required to keep plan and progress books, the former by way of prophecy of the coming day's work, the latter to record fulfillment. In the plan book are to be set forth "in logical order from day to day the various facts and principles to be taught under each subject, with sufficient detail to illustrate clearly what is meant." The progress book, on the other hand, shows what has actually been accomplished. The two records may be kept separately or together. The chief points of value of such plan and progress books are: (1) for the pupil, a more profitable recitation, more forceful and vigorous teaching, and more carefully selected and prepared work; (2) for the teacher, freedom from anxiety as to what to do next, and the benefits that always accrue to careful preparation; (3) for the substitute, easy taking up of the precise work of the day; (4) for the principal, superintendent, or other visitor, a bird's-eye view of the teacher's and pupils' work.

It is easy, however, to overdo this, as all other plans, and a few cautions must be added as an offset to the above summary of advantages. If the plan

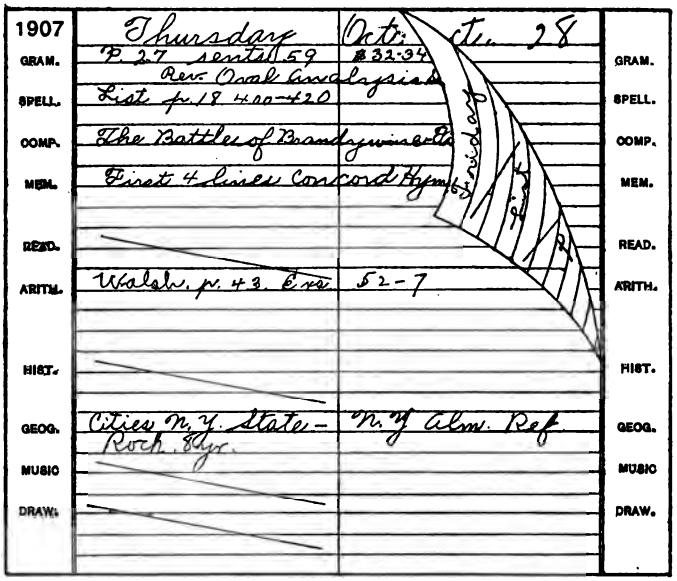
and progress books are in any degree elaborate in form and substance, (1) there is a tendency to regard the books as an end in themselves instead of a means to the true ends of education; (2) there is indifference to the class spirit and the finer forms of class work; (3) emphasis is placed on the pouring-in work of the teacher at the expense of the proper response on the part of the pupils; (4) there is a temptation for the principal to substitute an inspection of these books for a more thorough investigation of the actual work of the teacher and class.

To secure the happy mean between no plan books and books which are too elaborate is an important duty of the principal. It is reasonable to require different degrees of preparation by different teachers, demanding from the new teacher a more detailed plan and a more exact record of progress than from the older and more experienced teachers.

For the excellent teacher the following form of plan book will prove sufficient. An ordinary memorandum book, about 4″ by 6″, with horizontal ruling, indexed as shown, will give a line or two for each subject and a double page for each day.

Throughout the day, as the work in any subject is completed, a concise note is made of what it is planned to take

up the next day. By the close of the day the book is thus already written up for the following day. Entries in pencil are usually sufficient. The same book serves all neces-



sary purposes as a progress book, because the difference between the work planned for any one day and for the day following will indicate the work accomplished on the first of the two days.

4. Daily Time Schedule

Such a programme or time schedule is needed as a matter of system for the teacher, in order that

she may keep her balance and properly proportion the minutes of the school day to the separate features of the work in hand. The programmes should be the product of the work of both the principal and the teachers; he should prescribe the general principles, and they should work out the detail, subject to his final review and approval.

The leading principles to be followed in the construction of the time schedule are: —

1. It must be mathematically correct. This is based upon the assumption that the school time of the week or month is allotted to the different subjects in the curriculum by schedule issued by the school board or the superintendent. Hence, the amount of time for each subject on the daily schedule must check up in agreement with the authorized totals.

2. If the authorized schedule includes an allotment of unassigned time, this time must be wisely assigned, in accordance with the local needs, in the daily schedule.

3. The schedules for the various classes must be so arranged as to avoid conflict of recesses, assemblies, and other group or general exercises.

4. The number of subjects daily and the length

of time given to each must be regulated and varied according to the grade of the class. Pupils in lower grades need frequent change of occupation, with periods not too long to be exhausting. Higher grade pupils take longer periods, — up to forty or fifty minutes, — which will reduce the number of subjects to be taken daily.

5. There should be a proper distribution of subjects; an alternation, first, of those subjects which involve different phases of effort on the part of the pupil, and secondly, of those subjects which are taxing [1] and those which are relaxing. Over-taxing the brain produces fatigue, which "is defined as the decrease in the capacity for work; fatigue in this sense may or may not have definite relations to the peculiar sensation known as the 'feeling of fatigue.'" [2]

Fatigue is a physical matter, and is not to be confounded with weariness, which is psychological. "We may note as evidence of normal fatigue a definite weakening of attention

[1] "In the intermediate grades, at least, all drill lessons — including writing, spelling, basal reading, drill arithmetic, etc. — should be given very favorable periods." — WILLIAM CHANDLER BAGLEY, "The Educative Process," New York, 1907, p. 328.

[2] E. W. Scripture, "The New Psychology," New York, 1905, p. 247.

and perception, an unreadiness and inaccuracy of judgment, diminished power of insight and initiation, and especially a loss of self-control. Along with these there is discoverable a lessened work rate, as well as a lengthened reaction-time to all kinds of stimuli; while usually there are more or less painful feelings accompanying all efforts whatsoever." [1]

"The clearness of the ideas aroused under our instruction is very dependent upon the child's freedom from fatigue." [2] The amount of vitality at the disposal of each individual person is subject to wide variation, according to age,[3] season, and time of day. It would appear that this last variation — particularly to be considered in the construction of the daily time schedule — takes the form of a regular alternation of maxima and minima, and that the two periods of maxima are at about 9.30 to 11.00, both A.M. and P.M., and the two periods

[1] Smith Baker, *Educational Review*, Vol. XV, 1898, p. 34.

[2] Stuart H. Rowe, "The Physical Nature of the Child," New York, 1906, p. 73.

[3] "There seems to be evidence also that there is a falling off in the nervous power of the child at about the seventh and eighth years. He is more easily fatigued. This is due probably to the fact that the increase in the size of the heart muscle does not correspond to the rapid increase in height and weight at that age." — ROWE, *ibid.*, p. 129.

of minima at about 3.00 to 4.00, both morning and afternoon.[1]

6. Liberal interpretation should be allowed to experienced teachers. The new teacher will need the detailed supervision that is implied in being required to adhere closely to an exact allotment of time and lessons.

Such a teacher will have a schedule of the usual form, in which is indicated, for each day of the week, the exact order of all exercises and the time to be devoted to each.

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	
9						9
10						10
11						11
12	NOON INTERMISSION					12
1						1
2						2
3						3

[1] *See* Henry Herbert Donaldson, "The Growth of the Brain," London, 1895, Chapters XV and XVI. Cf. Bagley, *op. cit.*: "Despite the numerous researches concerning the factors of fatigue and their operation in the school, this is still a dark chapter in school hygiene," p. 340.

But conditions vary within a class from time to time. The physical environment, the weather, interruptions by visitors, special exercises, special absence of pupils in large number, and many other causes contribute to make one Tuesday, for instance, quite different from another. The experienced teacher may be trusted to consider these variations and modify her day's programme accordingly.

DAILY TIME SCHEDULE

CLASS_____ ROOM_____

Showing number of minutes to be devoted to each subject daily

MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
Opening Exercises...	Opening Exercises..	Opening Exercises..	Opening Exercises..	Opening Exercises..
Physical Training...	Physical Training..	Physical Training..	Physical Training..	Physical Training..
Recess from.. .....to.....	Recess from .....to.....	Recess from .....to.....	Recess from .....to.....	Recess from .....to.....
Games from .....to.....	Games from .....to.....	Games from .....to.....	Games from .....to.....	Games from .....to.....
Shop, Cooking, Sewing, from.. .....to.....	Shop, Cooking, Sewing, from .....to	Shop, Cooking, Sewing, from .....to	Shop, Cooking, Sewing, from .....to.....	Shop, Cooking, Sewing, from .....to.....
Study.....	Study.....	Study.....	Study.....	Study.....
Unassigned..	Unassigned..	Unassigned..	Unassigned..	Unassigned..
TOTAL.....	TOTAL.....	TOTAL.....	TOTAL.....	TOTAL.....

In determining the order in which these subjects shall be taken, the teacher will exercise her judgment, remembering (1) that pupils are influenced by conditions which may

differ from day to day; (2) that subjects which are taxing and those which are relaxing should be properly alternated; and (3) that the "curve of fatigue" shows a minimum amount of energy available between 11 and 12.

For such a teacher the preceding type of schedule (in which the number of minutes for each subject is entered by the principal) is well adapted.[1]

(*B*) On the qualitative side, the chief lines of planning are: —

1. Securing uniformity of methods.
2. Securing correlation.
3. Maintaining quality of pupils' work.
4. Giving model lessons.

1. Uniform Methods

The principal will supervise the work of teachers in such a way that the work of one grade will dovetail into the work of the next grade. Particularly will this be accomplished by prescribing uniform methods in those subjects which continue from grade to grade.

For example, there are several methods of teaching problems in interest. Three teachers in three successive

[1] Cf. the rigid requirement in Cleveland: "At the opening of each year each teacher will make and forward to the superintendent a programme of exercises for each day, and a copy of the same will be posted on her schoolroom door."

grades may each be expert in the handling of a different method. Yet it is better that the principal decide upon one of those methods and prescribe its use in all three grades than that the pupil go from one method to the others, no matter how excellent each may be.

2. Correlation

Proper correlation must be effected between the various subjects in each grade. Particularly is this necessary when the principal has administrative assistants with whom he shares the work of the school vertically; and in the departmental system, where the work of each grade is taught by several teachers.

3. Quality of Pupils' Work

Some system should be established for commending the good work of pupils and for condemning their poor work.

For commendation, meritorious work may be sent to the principal's office,—at stated times of the day is probably best,—there to receive his personal approval, which may be expressed by his marking or stamping the paper EXCELLENT, VERY GOOD, etc., adding his signature.

For work which should be commended but which is not

tangible enough to be stamped, or which it may not be practicable to stamp, a commendation card —

FOR COMMENDATION

NAME _____

ROOM _____ DATE _____ 190___

FOR _____

_____

_____

TEACHER

APPROVED _____

may be issued by the teacher and presented by the pupil for his signature in approval. It is best to limit the use of such cards, perhaps to two per day per class. They may be used for a variety of cases: improvement, general, or in some particular subject; effort, specially applied, or general; generally good deportment or lessons; some particular exercise of marked excellence, as a good composition, neat penmanship, a beautiful drawing, gymnastics, etc.

Similarly, the teacher should have the opportunity of sending unsatisfactory work to the principal. He may stamp such papers: —

This work is below the average
of the class.
Kindly examine it and return it to
the school, with your signature.

Respectfully,
(Signed) Principal.

or some similar form. It is not necessary that the receipted papers be returned to the office unless the teacher has doubt as to the genuineness of the parent's signature, in which case she will promptly refer it to the principal. He will investigate and, if the teacher's suspicion proves correct, dispose of it as a case of "discipline."

There are certain advantages gained by sending papers home in this way: 1. It keeps the parents informed as to the pupil's progress, and the majority of the parents appreciate the information. 2. It spurs pupils to better work. 3. It helps establish the justice of a pupil's non-promotion at the close of the term; a series of papers thus signed and returned by the parent precludes astonishment that his child failed of promotion. 4. The principal's stamp on a paper gives its reference to the parent added dignity and authority. If the parent wishes to reply in writing or by personal call, he knows that he must reckon with the principal, and naturally goes directly to him. He can best handle the interests of all concerned, and can best decide whether the teacher should be called to interview the parent.

After a number of unsatisfactory papers of any one pupil have been sent home, with no material improvement resulting, or when the pupil's poor work is rather a matter of oral recitation, the teacher should have the opportunity of communicating with the parent by some such form as the following: —

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100,
BROADWAY AND FULTON STS.,

NEW YORK,_____190___

M_____,

_____

DEAR_____:

I am sorry that I must remind you that_____

_____'s work in_____

is still below the average of the class.

Will you please to give the matter your attention and coöperate with us in securing better results?

Respectfully,

_____
(TEACHER).

This, and similar notes from teachers to parents, may, with good effect, be countersigned by the office thus:—

PLEASE SIGN AND RE-
TURN TO THE SCHOOL.
(PRINCIPAL.)

If necessary, this might be followed by other forms such as,—

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100,
BROADWAY AND FULTON STS.,

NEW YORK,.....190...

M.....,

.....

DEAR.....:

.....'s poor work continues. It would be to h..... best interest if you would call here at your earliest convenience.

Respectfully,

.....
(TEACHER).

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100,
BROADWAY AND FULTON STS.,

NEW YORK,.....190...

M.....,

.....

DEAR.....:

.....'s poor work still continues. Unless there is decided improvement immediately, h..... will be placed in the next grade below.

Respectfully,

.....
(TEACHER)

4. Model Lessons

The most direct means of improving the teacher's work is the model lesson. The principal may often teach in the class room with some other aim in view,[1] but when he is giving a model lesson he should keep in mind: —

1. The lesson should be given in a constructive spirit and in an attitude that is in sympathy with the difficulties of the teacher. The aim is to help the teacher better her work; there must be nothing of the "show off," no display of information or exploiting of ideas, but a straightforward demonstration to the teacher, either of general method or of the particular point that has baffled her, to help her in *her* actual difficulty.

2. The pupils should not be permitted to understand that the purpose of the principal is to teach the teacher. They should regard the teacher as thoroughly competent, and the principal's lesson as a mere incident in the day's proceedings.

3. The principal should, if possible, not interfere with the regular order of lessons, and should take no longer time for his model lesson than the teacher

[1] See p. 315.

is expected to take in covering the same exercise. For the principal to drop into the class room, become interested in the work in hand, take that work out of the hands of the teacher, and display his own knowledge on the subject, is not to give a model lesson. In any such procedure he is likely to ramble away from the point of the lesson, to exceed the time scheduled, and to leave the subject in a worse condition than if the teacher had finished it in accordance with her own prearranged plan.

4. Teachers should be encouraged to ask for model lessons. Then, they should not always be given. If the principal, as is often the case, can help more by not giving it, then he should refrain.

For instance, a teacher says: "Last term I had difficulty with the teaching of this topic. We have reached it for this term; will you present the lesson to my class?" The principal replies: "Indicate to me carefully the steps by which you presented it last term," and then attends to her demonstration of her own method. Upon her completing it, he says: "At such a point you followed with such and such a point. Had you, instead, gone in this other direction and taken so-and-so, would it have been better?" The teacher grasps the idea, admits that her own method appears weak at just that point, and sees the better way. The principal then sends her back to her

class to give the lesson herself in accordance with this new method which she herself has worked out. Such a disposition of the problem is better than for the principal to give the lesson himself. However, if the teacher does not grasp the point made by the principal, or else does not agree that his method is an improvement on her own, he should try it in the class himself, with the result either that the teacher with faith understands the method, or that the teacher with doubts is convinced of its value. If the result of the lesson should indicate that the doubting teacher's skepticism was justified, the principal must frankly admit it, and give the subject further study.

5. Every model lesson, given as such, should be followed by a conference with the teacher. It may be pointed out to her that the principal, in giving such a lesson, labors under a decided advantage in that he brings with him novelty and authority; and under a decided disadvantage in that he is ignorant of the individual pupils, their respective temperaments and abilities;[1] and that these advantages and disadvantages practically offset each other. The teacher should be asked to criticise the lesson just as the principal would criticise a similar lesson given by the teacher; and the princi-

[1] The teacher will realize this if she recalls the difference in her own efficiency during the first and the later weeks with a new class.

pal should take up each point of criticism or comment, and answer or explain it. Only by frank discussion can the teacher be led to see the better way, and the pupils get the ultimate benefit of improved methods by the teacher.

6. Finally, the principal should keep a careful record of such service rendered to teachers, noting the teacher's name, class, general condition, subject taught, length of lesson, results of conference, etc.

But, on the whole, we may agree with Payne, "Teachers are to be held responsible for the quality of their instruction and discipline, and should be allowed to follow their own methods so far as is consistent with general requirements." [1] If the principal will protect the teacher from outside interference, — from parents, book agents, and canvassers, and even from himself and other supervisors, — and equip her with such automatic aids as have been indicated, he may hold her responsible for quality and results in her work, and in the vast majority of cases he will get them.

A school system must have some record of the quality of the work of the individual members of

[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 70.

its teaching force. This concerns the principal, for it is usually upon his judgment, in whole or in part, that the official rating of his teachers depends. The rating of teachers, then, is a necessary but not very pleasant duty of the principal, and he will determine these ratings by combining two factors: one, the general day-by-day impression which he has of each teacher, and the other, special consideration of her work.

As to the first of these, there are many opportunities for the principal to gain a general estimate of a teacher without considering her work in detail. The attitude of the teacher toward her work, her general scholarship and culture, her personal tidiness, her attendance and punctuality, her willingness to coöperate in the work of the school aside from the required work of her class, her influence on her pupils as shown by their bearing and conduct outside the class room, her manner in interviews with parents, — all these, and more, are indications to the principal of the character of the work of the teacher, which he may observe without entering her class room. Also, as he goes about from room to room on the routine business of the school, the principal, with whom alertness has become a second

nature, makes general observations which contribute toward his estimates of all teachers.

But the principal will not base his official rating upon this one general factor, particularly in the case of a teacher whom he regards, on this general basis, as unsatisfactory. It is necessary that he should at certain intervals — longer in proportion as the teacher is the more experienced and has repeatedly demonstrated her fitness — make formal inspection of the work of the teacher.

In such an inspection the principal will examine the written work of both teacher and pupils. The record books kept by the teacher exhibit her ability to plan and proportion her work, as well as her accuracy and neatness. The pupils' compositions, arithmetic papers, drawings, etc., tell a significant story to the intelligent inspector. The blackboard work of both teacher and pupils shows whether or not the teacher is making a pedagogical use of the blackboard; and in lower grades especially, the teacher's own work should be judged on the basis of its being a model before the eyes of the pupils.

More important than these, however, are the teacher and pupils themselves. The class in action is the great criterion. Teaching in accordance with

good method, intelligent and skillful questioning of pupils, logical and pedagogical development of subjects, unforced and effective correlation of the various subjects, illumination of lessons with illustrative material where possible, and finally, the clinching of a lesson and sufficient drill upon its main features, — all these are elements in teaching ability. But with these go certain other features which are distinguished rather as elements in disciplinary ability, although the wisdom or necessity of making such a distinction is open to argument. These include the teacher's poise and self-control, her manner before the class, her reaching of the individual pupil in her mass teaching, her power to secure a true interest and attention (not the "cutaneous excitation" scored by Gilbert),[1] her use of expression and voice as pedagogical means — the voice effectively modulated and varied in its tone, her executive ability in going from one activity to another; in short, her control of her class. The mere fact that a class is under control, "in order," is not sufficient; the character of the control is of far greater importance, and the experienced principal will discount the control that is only apparently

[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 139.

and superficially good, and credit the control that indicates *finesse* in the skill of the teacher.

Throughout every inspection the principal must impress the teacher with the thought that he is present in a constructive, not a destructive, spirit; that he is there to render assistance to the teacher in her service to her pupils; that his aim is primarily not to rate her, but to work with her for her betterment and that of the children. Every formal inspection should be followed by a conference with the teacher, in which the condition of the work should be made the subject of frank and sympathetic discussion. The teacher should be led to realize her own shortcomings, if any have been discovered, and to convict herself, rather than to receive formal instructions to do thus and so.

These two factors, then, enter into the principal's judgment of a teacher. The testing of the pupils, another possible element, is considered in a later chapter.

Whenever ratings are made of teachers and forwarded to higher authority, justice demands that a copy of the ratings should be presented to the teachers concerned, whether this is required by the rules or not. If the rating is unsatisfactory, it

might be well to precede the formal written statement with an informal conference in which the principal expresses his regret that the teacher's work makes necessary such a rating, indicates the lines along which improvement should be gained, and gives such encouragement as the case may warrant.

In most systems there is a class of teachers known as Special Teachers, those, that is, who have charge of so-called special subjects, such as music, drawing, sewing, shop work, and so on. They usually occupy a position the status of which is somewhere between that of a class teacher and a supervisor; they visit classes, inspecting their work and advising the teachers in regard to it, and giving such model lessons as are needed to enable the regular class teachers, ordinarily not specially trained in the subject, to teach it with some degree of skill.

The duties of the principal toward these special teachers are chiefly (1) to arrange for cheerful and effective coöperation between them and the class teachers; (2) to curb the specialist in her natural tendency to overdo her own specialty; and (3) to see that the time schedules are respected as regards the special subjects.

Most special teachers are artists of one sort or another, and consequently have the artist's temperamental distaste for mathematical limitations and systematic observance of schedules. The principal will make certain that all the special subjects are given their full time and that the time allotted to them is effectively devoted to the subjects; but he must see, too, that the other subjects of the curriculum, those which have no special staff of enthusiasts to exploit them, do not suffer loss of time at their hands.[1]

In schools having a very large number of pupils, the principal is usually given one or more assistants who have no class-room duties. These may be clerical assistants or administrative assistants.

If the principal's assistant is a clerk, licensed to perform clerical duties only, and paid on that basis, her duties must be clearly understood to

[1] "In these days of subdivision of labor and divided interests we are sadly exposed to bullying at the hands of the patrons of special 'subjects.' It is the business of teachers and of all practical friends of education to defend jealously the general and liberal gymnastic against the attacks of those who, interested in a particular study or impressed by the immediate practical results of a particular pursuit, would monopolize with it the greater part of the school time table." — P. A. BARNETT, *op. cit.*, p. ix.

include nothing of a supervisory character. She must not be permitted either deliberately or unconsciously to become a pedagogic adviser of the teachers. If a principal is neglectful of this, it is very easy for the clerk to drift into a position where she is directing teachers in their work, and any such state of affairs is wrong to the teachers and the pupils.

But if the assistant is licensed as an administrative assistant and classed as a supervisory expert, then she has a very different relation to the principal and the teachers. In some cities such an assistant has clearly defined duties; in others, her duties are by assignment of the principal, subject to the approval of his superiors. Where the Rules do not provide in detail for the service that is to be rendered by the assistant principal, the principal himself should make careful assignment of such duties and have it clearly understood by the assistant and by the teachers what her responsibilities are. If the principal has entire freedom in the delegation of part of his own duties to the assistant, he has a choice between two distinct methods of assignment: a horizontal or a vertical. Under the former, he divides the supervisory work

of the school horizontally, across the school, by grades or by floors of the building. Under the latter, he divides the work vertically by subjects. Or he may combine the two methods.

For example, a division of work horizontally might give his assistant grades I–V and himself grades VI–VIII. Or if the school occupied a four-story building, his assistant might have the lower two floors and he the upper two, regardless of the grades that came in such a division. On the other hand, a vertical division might be made as follows: Principal — Mathematics, History, Nature, Science, Drawing, Discipline, throughout the entire school; Assistant — English, Geography, Penmanship, Music, Lateness, Supplies, throughout.

Briefly summarized, the arguments in favor of Horizontal Assignment are: 1. Assistants of a certain temperament like it, possibly thinking it easier; and some are not qualified to supervise higher grade work. 2. It gives each teacher fewer supervisors to please. 3. It leads to good correlation in each grade. 4. Responsibility *seems* more fixed and definite.

In favor of Vertical Assignment: 1. It adds dignity to the position of assistant, and tends to encourage her personal growth. 2. It gives teachers

the advantage of a variety of help, and a chance of a more equitable rating, assuming that the principal rates only after consultation with his assistant. 3. It gives the principal the benefit of counsel. His assistant may be especially well qualified along certain lines, and if these are the lines she supervises, her value to the principal as a counsellor is enhanced. 4. It understudies the principal so that in his absence some one competent temporarily to perform his duties becomes the acting head. 5. It secures proper development of each subject of the curriculum from grade to grade. 6. It aids school discipline, in that the pupils are discouraged from supposing that there may be one kind of deportment when the principal is in the building, and another kind when he is not. 7. It gives the principal a better opportunity to know *all* his teachers; particularly is he better able to rate them by his own direct personal knowledge.

CHAPTER VI

THE PRINCIPAL AND THE PUPILS — THE MATERIAL EQUIPMENT

"THE final test of all questions of administration is its relation to the welfare of the individual children in the schools." [1] Before considering the responsibility of the principal for the physical, mental, and moral upbuilding of his pupils, attention must be given to the material side of the school. By *the school* is meant, of course, the organization of pupils and teachers; but in modern practice, the school is known only as housed in a special building and environed with material aids to instruction and learning. Occasionally a principal is concerned with his school from the time that plans are first made for its building; but in the great majority of cases he is assigned to a school which already occupies a building, for the design and original equipment of which he is in no way responsible. In either case, given the school plant, he is directly

[1] Gilbert, *op. cit.*, p. 254.

responsible for its care and maintenance. Hence he should know what good equipment is, so that at least he may intelligently advocate improvements and extensions. In the words of Dr. Rowe, "Where we are perforce obliged to teach in conditions not ideal, we should be all the more careful to see that every favoring condition possible be given the children." [1]

The material phase also includes certain other topics, so that this chapter will consider, in order, each very briefly: (1) The School Building, (2) Heating and Ventilation, (3) Supplies, and (4) Decoration.

1. The School Building

The general subject of school buildings and schoolrooms has been so fully treated in educational literature [2] as to make superfluous any detailed presentation of the subject here. One point especially must be brought out, however, in any current discussion of the subject; namely, that the

[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 12.

[2] See W. H. Burnham, "The Bibliography of School Hygiene," in *Pedagogical Seminary*, Vol. II, p. 9; particularly Edward R. Shaw, "School Hygiene," New York, 1902; and Severance Burrage and Henry Turner Bailey, "School Sanitation and Decoration," Boston, 1899.

development of the modern three- or four-story building with its scores of rooms has been accompanied by a demand for many other features than class rooms. Assembly rooms, gymnasiums, workshops, baths, kindergartens, etc., are coming to be regarded as universal necessities rather than the luxuries of the exceptional building.

The ideal assembly room is a room distinctly designed for that purpose and reserved for general assemblies of pupils. It has an ample number of exits, a sufficient supply of light from windows properly placed, and wall surfaces which lend themselves to artistic treatment. It is furnished with seats arranged so that not more than four or five pupils occupy a single bench (individual seats are still better), and so that ample aisles are provided. It is further equipped with platform, reading desk, and piano.

The gymnasium occupies the space of at least two class rooms, and is furnished with the usual heavy apparatus, together with racks containing the light individual apparatus, such as dumb-bells, clubs, wands, hoops, etc.

The workshops and cooking rooms are usually fitted for classes or sections of between sixteen and

twenty-eight, and on this basis require a little more space than is usually allotted to a regular class room.

The kindergarten of not more than forty pupils requires a room the size of a regular class room, and there is no limit to the amount of artistic furnishing which may be devoted to it.

Probably the greatest need for improvement is in the design and equipment of the regular class room. We may agree with Gilbert that the "group method" of classification of pupils "offers the best plan within the control of the teacher for training the individual in society," [1] and whether we commit ourselves to one system or another of class-individual instruction, we may recognize the force of Bagley's statement that "the need of careful assignments of seat work for the majority of the class is paramount, and for this reason a well-developed technique of class instruction, especially with reference to the assignment, is obviously of great importance." [2] But of coördinate importance is a reformation in the equipment of our class rooms. In certain cities, kindergarten rooms are furnished in hard

[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 43.

[2] William Chandler Bagley, "Classroom Management," New York, 1907, p. 221.

wood and plate or leaded glass, with open fireplaces, engravings, bric-à-brac, and many other luxurious appointments, in addition to the traditional kindergarten equipment.[1] When the taxpayers are ready to expend the same amount of money upon the furnishing of the regular class rooms as they now spend, in some places, on the kindergartens,[2] the educational administrators of their money will be able to provide a class-individual instruction that comes far nearer our ideals than anything yet provided. The development of a profitable technique of individual instruction will be greatly hastened by the development of a material equipment for individual and small-group instruction.

The possibilities of such equipment can only be hinted at: a room 50 per cent larger than our present average

[1] Superintendent Small, of Providence, cites (p. 75, Report of School Committee, 1905–1906) a kindergarten room in Pittsburg "circular in form, panelled in solid mahogany, with a raised stucco frieze as a border and a beautiful painted ceiling, and with an elegant green circular Brussels carpet in place of the ordinary painted circle."

[2] Superintendent Small (Report, p. 40): "Reduced to an equal time basis, a kindergarten pupil costs 2.4 times as much as a grammar and primary pupil, and our kindergartens are run on a very economical basis."

class room; a class register limited to forty pupils; forty adjustable and movable seats and desks; a place devoted to molding boards; a shop for making models, maps, charts, etc.; a corner for a museum, a herbarium, a reference library, etc.

2. Heating and Ventilation

A prime necessity for the proper conduct of school activities is that pupils shall work under favorable conditions as to temperature and ventilation.

When the temperature of the outside air falls below the normal requirement of 68°–70° F., some artificial means of maintaining such a normal condition inside the school must be resorted to. The present practice, in replacing old systems and in installing new ones, seems to be to use a steam-heating plant. This, of course, is a system of *direct* radiation, the heated coils being placed within the room to be heated, and involves the use of radiators, with valves to regulate the inflow and outflow of steam. In the most modern systems, this regulation, either as to the entire plant or as to the radiators in each room, or both, is automatically secured by means of thermostats.

The thermostat, placed on a wall at a convenient

height, has direct connection by compressed air or other means of control with the valve regulating the inflow of steam. When the temperature of the air falls below normal, contraction of a delicately placed disk or arm in the thermostat releases the control, and the steam valve is opened, permitting the flow of steam into the radiator, thus heating the room. Contrariwise, when the temperature rises materially above the normal, the expansion of metal in the thermostat initiates the control, and the valve is closed. If there is no automatic control of this sort, the regulation of the valves must be by hand, and requires constant attention by teacher or janitor.

But the heating of the air is only half the requirement; there must be a constant replacement of old air with new, *i.e.* ventilation. This means that (1) there must be a sufficient supply; (2) it must be maintained at the normal temperature; (3) it must be humid to about 55 per cent of saturation; and (4) it must be of proper purity.

(1) The two methods of maintaining circulation, by vacuum and by plenum propulsion, are the reverse of each other in their action; in the former, the propeller is in the exit shaft; in the latter, it is in the inlet duct; by the former, the air is drawn

or sucked out of the room; by the latter, it is pushed or forced into the room. Heat is the simplest form of propulsion;[1] but the modern plant secures circulation by means of a fan, the operation of which, at a speed of from 120 to 250 revolutions per minute, draws or forces the air through the ducts and into and in the class rooms. The speed of the air in its circulation about the room must not be too great, else a draft is created, endangering the health of the pupils. Each pupil should have 30 cubic feet per minute of fresh air. For a class of fifty, then, 1500 cubic feet will be needed. It has been found that a speed greater than 400 feet per minute is a draft. Hence, to bring 1500 cubic feet per minute into a room at a speed of 400 feet, requires an inlet — and of course, too, an outlet — of approximately 4 square feet area. The best position for these openings seems to be, for the inlet, about 8 feet above the floor, and for the outlet, about 1 foot above, with the two openings in the same wall but not directly in the same vertical line.

(2) By passing the air over steam coils before it enters the ducts, the normal temperature is secured;

[1] For diagram, see Gilbert B. Morrison, "The Ventilation and Warming of School Buildings," New York, 1892, p. 72.

(3) by passing it over water pans or through screens kept constantly moist, proper humidity is established; and (4) by taking it from out of doors at a distance from the surface, and screening it to keep out flying papers, leaves, etc., the supply is kept fairly pure.

3. Supplies

Whether the principal has much or little to do with text-books and other materials used by pupils depends upon whether or not his city has a free-book system. If it has, then the requisitioning of supplies within a definite appropriation becomes one of his important duties; if not, his responsibility is limited to seeing that his pupils supply themselves with the proper materials and that the few indigent pupils are supplied in accordance with the provisions usually made for them.[1]

In either case there is generally a restriction as to

[1] Richmond is typical: "Pupils in grades below the high schools who are unable to provide books may, on written application of parent or guardian, upon form prepared for same, be loaned books by the School Board; but in all such cases, the books shall be returned when the pupil leaves the school. . . . Parents or guardians applying for books for 'indigent pupils' must apply in person, and sign the application in the presence of the principal." — Rules and Regulations, 16.

the particular text-books and other supplies which may be used in the schools. Some cities have what is known as a "closed" list, where, for instance, only one title for the study of geography in each grade is permitted. Other cities have an "open" list, including a large number of titles for each subject in each grade, and impose upon the principals the duty not only of requisitioning the proper quantities of books but also of choosing which books shall be used in their respective schools.

Whatever the conditions,[1] the principal should know good books and good stationery, just as he should know good buildings.[2] It is assumed, therefore, that the principal is concerned with (1) the selection of supplies, (2) the requisitioning of supplies, and (3) the care of supplies.

[1] A digest of State legislation affecting text-books is given in Chapter IX, on School-book Legislation, in Jeremiah W. Jenks, "Citizenship and the Schools," New York, 1906, p. 257.

[2] If the list is a "closed" one, it is not closed forever; and the principal should, at least as a "general" duty, influence the retention of good books and the rejection of poor ones. Note its recognition as a "specific" duty in Worcester: "The supervising principals, when requested by the committee on books and supplies, shall report in writing upon any proposition for the introduction of a text-book, book of reference, globe, map, or chart." — Regulations, Chapter III, Sec. 8.

1. The selection of supplies. The selection of other supplies is not a very serious problem,[1] but in choosing text-books the principal must exercise especial discretion. Nor will he depend entirely upon his own judgment. "Minerva-like in wisdom must be he who out of the depths of his own experience and judgment can determine just what is the best book for his school. The wise man is he who secures the coöperation and collective judgment of the teachers in the subject." [2]

The principal considerations in the selection of a text-book are: —

(*a*) Its mechanical make-up.

Its general appearance should be considered; for, other things being equal, it is reasonable that pupils should have placed before them books which are artistic examples of the bookmaker's art, rather than those of inferior, uninstructive, or unattractive appearance.

The bindings should be substantial and appropriate. It is economy to buy a book that is well

[1] "Blackboards should be dead black and unglazed, and the crayon should be soft enough to make a clear, heavy stroke." — BAGLEY, "Educative Process," p. 344.

[2] William L. Felter, *Educational Review*, Vol. XXXIII, April, 1907, p. 397.

bound; and particularly is it an injury to the pupil to study a book so put together that he cannot use it without straining his eyes in the effort to read the print along the inside margins.

The paper, in quality and tone, should contribute to the pupils' comfort; it "should be non-transparent, non-bibulous, without gloss, and not embossed by type." [1]

The type should be of simple style and sufficient size and widely leaded. "If every book, no matter what its merits, were rejected if its type were too small, the makers of such books would very quickly bring out new editions with a proper size of type." [2]

The illustrations should be clear-cut, unambiguous, artistic, and accurate.

(*b*) The text.

The vocabulary and style should be appropriate to the work in hand for the pupils of the grade.

The presentation of the subject-matter should be in accordance with good pedagogic methods.

The text should be adequately supplemented and reënforced by illustrations, maps, diagrams, etc., such as really illustrate and explain.

2. The requisitioning of supplies. The principal

[1] Rowe, *op. cit.*, p. 13. [2] Shaw, *op. cit.*, p. 177.

is usually given a definite appropriation for supplies of all kinds for the fiscal year.[1] He is expected to exercise care and economy in its expenditure, and he will do well, at the outset of the year, to subdivide his allowance, allotting definite amounts for the purchase of different classes of material. He is more likely, in this way, to order supplies judiciously and in good proportion as related to the different activities of the school.

The following is offered as a suggestive scheme to be used as the basis of allotment: —

I. Text-books: —

Grade by grade and subject by subject, as required by the curriculum.

II. General Supplies: —

a. Stationery: blankbooks, pads, paper, envelopes, . . .

b. Writing materials: pens, penholders, pencils, ink, chalk, . . .

c. Records: books, blanks, cards, . . .

d. Miscellaneous: book covers, mucilage, rulers, rubbers, pointers, paper fasteners, . . .

[1] This appropriation is generally based upon the number of pupils of each grade. It might properly consider another factor, viz.: the kind of pupils as to their home environment, etc., as in some districts and under certain conditions, books are subjected to a "wear and tear" that is not normal to another district or condition.

III. Special Supplies: —

a. Drawing: paper, crayons, colors, models, paste, compasses, . . .

b. Cooking: utensils, china ware, cutlery, . . .

c. Sewing: needles, scissors, thread, buttons, gingham, . . .

d. Carpentry: tools, wood, screws, nails, paint, . . .

e. Kindergarten: gifts, yarn, paste, needles, weaving materials, . . .

IV. Apparatus: —

a. Science: chemicals, physical apparatus, . . .

b. Gymnastic: bells, clubs, wands, . . .

c. General: globes, maps, charts, stereoscopes, . . .

This will be modified by local and temporary conditions, such as the necessity for providing for newly formed classes, for revisions of the curriculum, etc.

Supplies for cleaning and caring for the building, used by the janitor, are usually charged to a separate account.

Some cities have a Library Fund against which are charged books which make up Class Libraries or the Teachers' Reference Library. If this is not the case, these items would be interpolated in the above scheme as subdivisions under I.

3. The care of supplies. The first consideration in caring for supplies is to keep proper account of

them. In some cities, the method of account is prescribed in detail; in all, some method is presupposed, as is shown by the regulations regarding requisitions,[1] inventories,[2] etc.

Just as the principal must give an accounting to his superiors for supplies, so must he require some sort of accounting from the teachers to whom he forwards those supplies. It is an extreme method, which takes the view that the teachers know what they need, should be given free access at all times to the stock room and permitted to help themselves, thus leaving the principal nothing else to do than to keep the stock room constantly supplied. The other extreme is to require from the teachers a written receipt in detail for all supplies sent them.

[1] "Principals shall issue to each room *on the written requisition* of the teacher thereof the text-books and supplies needed for such room. . . ." — St. Louis, Rules, 39, Sec. vii.

[2] "He (the principal) shall . . . at the end of each fiscal year . . . furnish an inventory of all the books and stationery belonging to the school." — Jersey City, Rules, Principals, ix.

"An accurate inventory shall be made, during the last week of June in each year, of the books, slates, maps, and all other articles usually embraced under the name of supplies in every school under the jurisdiction of the Board. . . . A duplicate of the June inventory shall be used as the basis of the receipt to be given by the janitor to the principal on the closing of the schools for the summer." — New York, By-Laws, Sec. 32, par. 10.

Between these two extremes there can be found some profitable middle course, determined largely by the temperament of the principal and the conditions under which he is working.

The following system for the handling of text-books is submitted: —

When books are sent from stock to a class, a Charge Slip is filled out and sent with them, thus: —

To be kept by the teacher	*To be sent to the office*
Jan. 7, 1908	*Jan. 7*, 1908
To the teacher of	
CLASS *8 A. M.*	CLASS *8 A. M.*
I CHARGE your Book Account with	RECEIVED from Stock
12 Gordy Hist. of U. S.	*12 Gordy Hist. of U. S.*
(No.) (Author) (Title)	(No.) (Author) (Title)
Your number on hand was . *32*	
Your number now is . . . *44*	Making number now on hand *44*
If this is correct, please keep this half of this sheet, and sign and return the other half.	
PRINCIPAL	---------- TEACHER

The teacher acknowledges delivery by signing and returning the half indicated.

When the teacher returns books to the office as worn out, or to replenish stock, or when she, for any other reason, should be charged with fewer books, a Credit Slip, on different colored paper, is filled out and signed by the principal; and the teacher returns the right-hand half as a certificate as to its correctness.

To be kept by the teacher	*To be sent to the office*
Jan. 15, 1908	*Jan. 15*, 1908
To the teacher of	
CLASS *8 A. M.*	CLASS *8 A. M.*
I CREDIT your Book Account with	SENT to Stock
5 Gordy Hist. of U. S.	*5 Gordy Hist. of U. S.*
(No.) (Author) (Title)	(No.) (Author) (Title)
Your number on hand was . *44*	
Your number now is . . . *39*	Leaving number now on hand *39*
If this is correct, please keep this half of this sheet, and sign and return the other half.	
PRINCIPAL	TEACHER

Whenever a Charge or a Credit Slip is issued, the office half is placed on file, and the teacher keeps her half as part of her records. In both cases the last previous slip for the same title is destroyed. Hence both principal and teacher have always on hand a number of slips equal to the number of different titles of books used in that

class; and each slip shows the present state of the account, together with the figures of the latest transaction.

Books are considered either Usable or Unusable; they are either current coin or they are not; if not, they are to be withdrawn from circulation. Teachers file, some weeks in advance, Unusable Slips, as: —

Dec. 5, 1907

CLASS *8 A. M.*

I estimate that on *Jan. 15*, 1908, about

5 of the *32* *Gordy* *Hist. of the U. S.*

(Number) (No. on hand) (Author) (Title)

charged to my Book Account will be UNUSABLE.

TEACHER

The principal's file of these Unusable Slips, together with his file of Charge and Credit slips and his Stock Sheet, give him all the data necessary for the making out of a requisition or an inventory. He will find very useful a chart tabulating the figures of his Charge and Credit file and his Stock Sheet, a form of which is suggested in the accompanying fragment.

TEXT-BOOK

Grade	Mathematics			Geography			History and Civics			I
8 B	Went-worth	Practical Arith.	B 40 G 42 S 12 O 0	Adams	Com. Geog.	D 42 G 42 S 3 O 8	Fiske	Hist. of U.S.	B 42 G 45 S 2 O 5	Max-well
	Atwood	Standard Algebra	B 41 G 42 S 0 G 20				Mc Master	School Hist. of U.S.	B 45 G 45 S 0 O 0	Webster
							For-man	First Lessons in Civics	B 40 G 43 S 2 O 10	
8 A	Seaver and Walton	New Franklin Arith., II	B 39 M 40 G 38 S 2 O 5	Dodge	Reader in Phys. Geog.	B 40 M 42 G 45 S 3 O 0	Gordy	A Hist. of the U.S.	B 41 M 40 G 40 S 10 O 0	Max-well
							Eggle-ston	A Hist. of the U.S. and Its People	B 39 M 39 G 41 S 0 O 20	Webster
								The American Cities	B 4 M	
7 B	Walsh	M								

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Beyond accounting for supplies, the principal is responsible for their proper care by teachers and pupils; and it is evident that in proportion as he holds the teachers responsible, they in turn will hold the pupils responsible. Each pupil upon receiving his books must be required to protect them by an outside paper or cloth cover; and to label them with a memorandum showing the name of the pupil, school, date, condition of the book when issued, etc. It is necessary for the principal each term personally to examine books to see that this has been done, or to require the teachers to file a statement that they have examined the books and found them properly labeled and covered.

Teachers may be shown their relation to the matter of damage to supplies by a specific regulation to this effect: "You are responsible for the proper care by the pupils of books and other school property. Report promptly any cases of neglect which you cannot adequately discipline." How to treat pupils who damage or lose text-books or other supplies is rarely a problem. If the pupil is ready and willing to make good the damage or loss, the difficulty adjusts itself. If he does not voluntarily do so, the specific rights and powers of the principal, usually defined

by the Rules, although varying in different cities, are quite sufficient to cover the case.

Typical conditions are:—

Jersey City: "Pupils who have once been supplied with books shall be required by the principal to replace or pay for them in case of loss or unnecessary injury." — Rules, LXI.

Baltimore: ". . . in case of loss or wanton destruction by any pupil, they (principals) shall require such pupil to replace the same." — Rules, Art. VII, 5.

St. Louis: "Pupils who are required to pay for text-books or supplies destroyed by them shall make such payment to the Secretary of the Board. . . ." Regulations, XXI, Sec. x.

Newark: "Any injury by a pupil to books or school articles, or to the furniture or building, shall be paid for by the parent or guardian in accordance with a bill to be rendered by the principal. In case payment be refused, the pupil shall be suspended, . . ."—Rules, V, 10, ii (b).

4. Decoration

Although it is quite impossible to reduce to any mathematical ratio the extent to which pupils are affected by the quality of their material environment, nevertheless it must be admitted that they are distinctly influenced by their surroundings, and that it becomes a duty of the school to provide something

more than mere "housing." Even the most wretched of schoolrooms admits of some decorative treatment which will reduce the ill effects of the cheerless atmosphere. The duty of the principal lies in both directions, the positive and the negative; he will encourage teachers, pupils, and parents in their praiseworthy efforts to decorate their schoolrooms; and he will restrain them in any mistaken zeal which finds expression in the mediocre, the unfit, or the uninspiring.[1]

The principal can use his influence toward having proper wall surfaces provided by the building department. "Avoid glaring white walls. Broken colors (*i.e.* colors modified by gray) are advised. For north and west exposures, use warm colors. For south and east exposures, use cool colors. The natural lighting of the room should govern the depth of color used." The wall surface, properly prepared, is itself a suggestion of artistic treatment by means of pictures, and the principal can encourage their acquisition. In some cities, pictures and casts are subject to requisition as general supplies. In

[1] A comprehensive and interesting treatment of the whole subject of schoolroom decoration will be found in Chapters VI–VIII, Burrage and Bailey, *op. cit.*

others, certain methods of raising money for their purchase are officially recognized. Parents may coöperate with teachers in subscribing funds, or school exercises may be held to which an admission fee is charged. Some firms of art publishers loan exhibits of standard pictures on a basis of a commission on the sale of tickets of admission.

Suggestions concerning pictures for wall decoration are here given. They are based upon considerations both of art and of public and pedagogic policy, and are a digest, in the main, of circulars issued by the New York State Education Department, Division of Visual Instruction.

1. "The subject must be of recognized artistic value and appropriate to the use of the grade or department for which it is selected."

2. Those subjects should be avoided which are objectionable: (1) "on religious grounds, as tending to irreverence for things held sacred, or as tending to dignify and enforce or to ridicule or antagonize particular doctrines"; (2) "on ethical grounds, as tending to make vice or questionable habits familiar or attractive, or as disregarding prejudice against the nude in art," or on emotional grounds, as portraying the painful.

3. The best type of picture is a high-grade photographic reproduction; engravings, etchings, and color prints are to be avoided.

4. "The impression made by one large picture, and the effect it produces on the mind and thought of the pupil, is far greater than that made by several small pictures."

5. "The frame should be of hard wood, preferably well-seasoned quartered oak, three or four inches wide, without grooves or other devices for collecting dust. The color of the frame should tone into the picture. French glass of first quality should be used. Framing with mat or margin should be avoided unless such treatment is essential to the effectiveness of the picture."

CHAPTER VII

THE PRINCIPAL AND THE PUPILS' PHYSICAL WELFARE

THE principal has a broad responsibility for the care of the pupils of his school: he must protect and develop them along physical, mental, and moral lines. The first of these responsibilities will be considered in this chapter, under three heads: (1) General Care, (2) Physical Protection, (3) Entrance and Exit.

1. General Care

A pupil duly sent to school by its parents is under the responsible care of the principal until he is formally dismissed at the close of the session.[1] This

[1] How far the authority of the principal over his pupils extends beyond the portals of the schoolhouse and the time-limits of the daily session, is but loosely defined in many states. In an interesting article on the subject, Mr. Fremont L. Pugsley says: "The law may, therefore, be regarded as well settled . . ., and may be thus briefly stated: School authorities have the power granted by the state, not by the districts or towns, to exercise reasonable control over the conduct of school children wherever and whenever such control is necessary to the discipline and general welfare of the schools; and the necessity for extending this control beyond the

leads to the question whether individual pupils should be permitted to leave the school building during the session, and if so, under what circumstances.

1. *In case of illness.*

Occasionally a conscientious and ambitious pupil comes to school when his physical condition demands that he should have remained at home. Teachers should be trained to detect such cases and refer them to the principal, who may then exercise his judgment as to sending the pupil home. Sometimes a pupil becomes suddenly ill during the session.[1] For such cases, if there is some chance of the principal's not being in his office at the time, it is best to give teachers authority, in advance, to dismiss a pupil and report the fact, rather than to have the case referred to the principal with resulting delay. Frequently, it may be wise to send an ill pupil home under the escort of some other pupil of sufficient maturity and judg-

limits of school buildings and grounds arises whenever the effect of acts done by pupils or parents or other persons beyond these limits, comes directly within them to the detriment of the discipline or the general welfare of the schools." Education, January, 1908, p. 272.

[1] "Teachers should be careful to excuse from school the child who does not feel well, especially if his face be flushed or his throat sore." — ROWE, *op. cit.*, p. 86.

ment. On the other hand, for many cases, especially of accident, it is better to make the pupil comfortable in the school, and to send for the parent, to whom the responsibility for the child may then be transferred.

2. *In cases of discipline.*

It is very questionable whether a pupil referred to the principal for discipline should ever be sent out of the school during a session, except in the case of one who is willfully insubordinate to the principal and defiant and menacing. Usually, in such a case, the eviction of the pupil should be the outward and visible sign of a formal and official suspension under the rules of the department, and not merely a hasty order, "Get out and don't come back without your father." In all ordinary cases of discipline, even if the pupil is temporarily withdrawn from his class, it is wiser to keep him under school control until the time of the regular dismissal. Yet, if a pupil willfully dismisses himself without permission, shall the principal prevent him by any physical compulsion? It would seem unwise, under any circumstances, for a teacher or principal to "run after" a boy who thus disposes of his own "case." Left to himself, he is sooner or later brought logically

to a realization of the fact that such a dismissal was but one more link in the chain of evidence of his misconduct which he had been forging for himself.

3. *On the parent's request.*

When a parent, having once formally enrolled his child in the school and sent him for the session, requests his dismissal before the close of the session, shall his request be granted? Whatever the principal's legal rights, he may well exercise discretion in the matter. It is important that the child respect the authority of his parents, and yet careless or thoughtless parents are prone to make unnecessary requests for the dismissal of their children. In the interest of the child concerned and of the school as a whole, it is therefore justifiable to make the securing of such dismissal as difficult as possible. There are various degrees of rigidity which may be maintained: —

(*a*) Pupils may be permitted to leave at any time during a session, and a note of explanation required from the parent upon the pupil's return.

(*b*) Pupils may be permitted to leave only upon the written request of the parent.

The objection to either of these rules is that a considerable proportion of parents are thoughtless

in a matter of this kind, and the earnest or pouting plea of the child to be permitted to go along on a shopping expedition, for instance, is not resisted; the writing of a note to the teacher or principal is a small price to pay for freedom from the child's insistence.

(*c*) Pupils may be dismissed only upon the personal application of the parent at the school. If such a rule is made and enforced, two distinct advantages accrue: the parent is less likely to make the request on any but serious accounts; and the presence of the parent gives the principal the opportunity to discuss the matter and to indicate that it is the parent who is taking upon himself the responsibility for the loss of school work which the child suffers.[1]

(*d*) All requests for dismissal may be refused on the ground that if it is important that a pupil should be out of school part of the session, it must be im-

[1] Cf. Louisville: "No pupil, after entering school in the morning, shall leave the grounds without the consent of the principal; nor shall any pupil be dismissed except at the written request of parent or guardian. All such requests, however, shall be discouraged by the principal as much as possible." — Manual, Sec. 5, Rule 8.

Also, St. Louis: "No pupil shall be allowed to be absent from school during the regular sessions to take music, drawing, dancing, or any other lessons." — Rules, Sec. v, Rule 49.

portant enough for him to remain out the entire session. The justification of such a rule is in the fact that for one pupil to leave a class room during a session, gathering and packing up his books and getting his hat and coat, usually distracts the attention of the class at least one minute, and that it is better that the pupil should lose fifty minutes for which he is responsible, than that fifty pupils should each lose one minute for which they are not responsible.

4. *For messenger service.*

It is often necessary to send a pupil out of the building on an errand. It is unwise to select pupils at random for such service. The personal safety of the pupil is endangered, and although the chance of a pupil's meeting with accident is extremely small, the principal should not take even that chance unwarrantably.

The principal may be guided by the following rules: 1. A pupil should not be sent out except on a necessary or emergency errand. 2. Teachers should not be permitted to send pupils without the special authority of the principal. 3. Only a pupil of sufficient maturity and discretion should be so employed. 4. The consent of the pupil should be

obtained. 5. A systematic handling will enable the principal to secure also the consent of the parent.

The following system is suggested. At the beginning of each year, each teacher of upper-grade boys is requested thus:

_____190___

M_____:

Please write below the names of five boys who are willing to do occasional errands for us outside the building, and whose class progress, in your judgment, will not be affected thereby.

1._____

2._____

3._____

4._____

5._____

The pupils thus selected are given notes to their parents in this form: —

Public School No. 100,
BROADWAY AND FULTON ST.,

NEW YORK,_____190___

M_____,

_____

DEAR_____:

It often happens in connection with our school work that there are errands to be done outside the school building.

----------has expressed a willingness to be of service to us in this manner. His class work seems to be of such average excellence as to allow of whatever loss of time it might involve.

If you are willing that he should be sent on such occasional errands, kindly signify your permission by signing the accompanying note.

Respectfully yours,

(PRINCIPAL)

with inclosure thus: —

NEW YORK,----------190---

To the Principal,
Public School No. 100,
New York.

DEAR SIR:

I am entirely willing that my son,----------,should occasionally be sent on errands outside of the school building, so long as his class progress permit.

Yours truly,

(Signed)----------

From the returns of these authorizing notes, a messenger list may be made up, showing names of messengers and their class rooms. When a boy is sent on an errand, it may be noted on this list; or better, the pupil may fill out a memorandum to be kept on file as protection to the principal and for future reference: —

MESSENGER

NAME.....

ROOM..... ....., 190...

SENT TO.....

FOR.....

TIME OF LEAVING .....:..... OF RETURN.....:.....

2. Physical Protection

Principal and teachers must, by good teaching method and by proper manipulation of the factors of material equipment, minister to the physical welfare of the pupils.

1. *By care of the class rooms.*

The janitor should have definite instructions as to the extent and frequency of his cleaning of the class rooms, and the teachers should be required to report promptly any dereliction of the janitor in this respect.

It may be noted, in passing, that teachers should not be permitted to give directions to the janitor. All orders to the janitor should issue from the principal. This would apply to all forms of janitorial service desired by any teacher; she should be re-

quired to submit her requests to the principal. It is but fair to the janitor that he should be subject to the orders of but a single head, whose directions are likely to be consistent and uniform.[1]

Teachers and pupils should learn to take such pride in the condition of their class rooms as to make impossible any serious accumulation of dirt, even in out-of-the-way corners of the rooms or wardrobes, thus reducing the chance of contagion through microbe-assimilating dust and dirt.

2. *By proper heating and ventilating.*

The principal must instruct teachers in that part of the operation of the local apparatus with which they are directly concerned, showing how the temperature and ventilation are to be regulated. If the heating system is steam, with radiators controlled by hand, he must explain the use of the valves; if controlled by thermostat, he must explain the necessity for the teacher's leaving the apparatus alone, but require her to report promptly any defect in

[1] The time at which the janitor should have "right of way" at the close of the session, should be definitely settled upon. Required, for instance, in Minneapolis: "Principals shall make arrangements with reference to the teachers in their buildings, so that the janitors can begin their work at 3.50 P.M., and continue it without interruption." Rules, Sec. 32.

its operation. She must understand, too, that the sharp clicking sound in the radiator which often accompanies the turning on or off of the steam is what is known as water-hammer, — caused by steam and water flowing in opposite directions in the coils, — and is not dangerous, and is only serious as it is annoying to the ear.

If the automatic heating system is accompanied by a system of ventilation, the teacher must understand the necessity for keeping the windows of the room closed while the system is in operation. To open windows is to cause a circulation of the air from the inlets to and from the windows in a zone above the level of the pupils, thus leaving the impure air in the lower part of the room as the only supply for the pupils. The keeping open of windows or doors in one room leads to the disturbance of the proper circulation throughout the entire tier of rooms depending upon the same duct for their fresh supply.

The chief danger, however, is that the teacher will regulate the temperature and ventilation to suit herself and not to suit the needs of the pupils. She is usually more active physically, and thus needs less heat than her pupils; or she may be suffering with some form of throat affection which may make her

require more heat than her pupils. In either case, her attention must be called to her duty to the class.

In spite of the best of apparatus for heating and ventilating, exceptional conditions will occasionally result in the temperature of a class room reaching abnormal figures. In some cities principals are specifically authorized, within certain restrictions, to dismiss classes when this is the case; for example, in St. Louis, where the limits are below 60° and above 90°, and in Jersey City, where they are 65° and 85° for primary classes and 60° and 90° for grammar classes.

3. *By preventing body strain.*

The definition of correct posture should be understood by the teachers. It does not mean that every child is to sit or stand throughout the school day in an absolutely ideal position; but the size and arrangement of the furniture should be such as to permit his assuming correct posture most of the time. The seating of pupils by some artificial standard, as, for instance, according to their rank, changing seats periodically, should not be done if it is at the expense of possible proper posture. To make a small boy sit in a high seat at a high desk, because he is successful in his school work, and to

make an overgrown boy sit in a low seat at a desk so low that he can only with difficulty get his legs under it, because he is backward or dull, is not making the best use of even poor school furniture. Pupils do not sit on a mental basis. The teacher must be alert to notice the pupil who is misfitted to his seat and desk and to give him relief by changing his seat, or, if the furniture is adjustable, regulating it to suit his needs. Careless or slouchy posture while sitting, standing, or walking, should not be permitted; correct habits should be formed early and maintained throughout.

4. *By preventing eye strain.*

The teacher must be constantly on the alert to regulate conditions. 1. She must see that pupils are properly seated as related to the blackboards, charts, etc. 2. She must have correct posture during all writing exercises. 3. She will not have too large a proportion of the school work done at a point near the eyes, using the blackboard as much as possible, especially in the lower grades. 4. She must require pupils in their blackboard work to bear heavily enough upon the chalk to make the writing easily legible. 5. She must regulate the window shades so that lights and shadows, especially upon the

blackboards, will be properly proportioned. Moreover, as has been noted, the principal, in his selection of text-books, maps, and charts, will secure such as have sizable type.[1]

The lighting of the room is not discussed, because that is more properly a matter of the construction of the building. Dr. Shaw enumerates certain rules:[2] 1. Window surface should be one fourth to one sixth of floor surface. 2. Light should come from the left, or possibly from the rear. 3. There should be little space between windows. 4. Windows should extend to the ceiling. 5. Window sills should be three and one half to four feet above the floor. 6. Window shades should be of darker tone than the room.

5. *By regulating the amount of home study.*

Teachers are prone to overload pupils with required home work, especially the preparation of written exercises. It is debatable whether it is wise, especially in certain neighborhoods, to require any

[1] Dr. Rowe (*op. cit.*, p. 9) gives as other causes of defective eyesight: tight neckwear, rubbing the eyes, disease, cigarette smoking, and unhealthy home conditions. On the misfocused eye, see Francis Walker, "The Study of Children," New York, 1899. Speaking of nearsightedness, he says: "This condition is not found at birth, though the tendency to short sight may be inherited; it usually develops during school life, and is in part preventable by the use of glasses and attention to the position of the child when at work," p. 29.

[2] *Op. cit.*, p. 8 *et seq.*

written home work. On one side, it may be said that many pupils are entirely without facilities at home for preparing written exercises, and that forcing them into competition with their more fortunate classmates is manifestly unfair. On the other side, it may be said in reply, that the very requirement by the school of such exercises leads to a better recognition in the home of the rights of the child, and results in gain both to the child and the home.

The following regulation of the subject represents an average condition as to written home work: —

1. It shall be required as a *class* exercise, in years 7 and 8, on not more than three days in the week; in years 5 and 6, on not more than two days; in years 2, 3, and 4, on not more than one day; in year 1, on no day.

2. It may be required as an *individual* exercise, in years 7 and 8, on not more than four days in the week; in years 5 and 6, on not more than three days; in years 2, 3, and 4, on not more than two days; in year 1, on no day. Days for class exercises to be included in the foregoing.

3. It may be given to any individual pupil at any time in excess of the above limitations, but only when it is clearly understood that such work is

optional, and failure to do it is not a matter of demerit.

The Board of Superintendents of New York City makes the following recommendations: —

1. Pupils should be required to carry home not more than one book in years 1–4; not more than two books in years 5 and 6; and not more than three books in years 7 and 8.

2. Home study from books should be restricted to one subject each day in years 1–4; to two subjects in years 5 and 6; to three subjects in years 7 and 8.

3. The time given to study should be restricted to one hour each day in years 1–6; and to one and one half hours in years 7 and 8.

6. *By preventing the spread of contagious disease.*

Teachers must learn the indications and be over-suspicious rather than otherwise.[1] In most cities there is formal coöperation provided with the Department of Health, so that the principal works with and through a representative of that department, a physician or nurse, or both. That department is usually clothed with practically unlimited legal powers, one of which is the exclusion of pupils summarily.

[1] See Shaw, *op. cit.*, Chapter XII; Walker, *op. cit.*, p. 227 *et seq.*, and Burrage and Bailey, *op. cit.*, Chapter IX.

The Philadelphia form is typical:—

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC HEALTH AND CHARITIES

BUREAU OF HEALTH

DIVISION OF SCHOOL INSPECTION
ROOM 612, CITY HALL

PHILADELPHIA,----------190--

MRS.----------

MY DEAR MADAM:

This is to notify you that your child----------
----------, in attendance upon----------
----------School, is in need of medical attention for

---.

For the best interests of the child you are advised to consult a physician, hospital, or dispensary without delay.

MEDICAL INSPECTOR

Particularly aggravating and usually very contagious is *pediculosis capitis*. Here teachers must be taught to be observant and to handle such cases with good judgment and tact. The average parent resents the interest of the school authorities in such a

matter; but this is, of course, the result of ignorance or misunderstanding. If the case is carefully stated to the parent, and no tinge of disgrace permitted to color the report, the necessity and justification of action can be shown to him.

7. *By examination of pupils to discover physical defects.*

In some cities this is done by agents of the Department of Health. Teachers can, however, by frequent tests of vision and hearing, discover cases requiring professional attention; in these cases, formal reports should be made to the parents.[1] Affections of nose and throat are frequent causes of serious mental defects in pupils, and removal of these causes almost invariably results favorably to the mental condition of the children.

8. *By discovering or preventing pathological fatigue.*[2]

"'Pathological fatigue' may be due to many things. Overwork is commonly supposed to be one of them. It may be said, however, that in children this is not very frequently the case." [3]

[1] Dr. Rowe states (*op. cit.*, p. 34) that over ninety per cent of cases of deafness affecting one ear can be cured.

[2] As distinguished from normal or temporary fatigue. Cf. p. 98.

[3] Dr. Smith Baker, *Educational Review*, Vol. XV, 1898, p. 34 *et seq.* Also see Walker, *op. cit.*, p. 143.

Some of the causes cited by Dr. Baker are: unhealthy confinement within doors; unwholesome shocks; "puzzlings, confusions, and conflicts of impulses resulting from the imposition of scatter-brain notions of teaching and discipline;" chronic apprehension and fear caused by injudicious exercise of "authority"; overstimulated ambitions; disproportionate pressure and rivalries; constitutional defects, serving as "luxurious soil," such as defects of hearing and seeing, blood vessels supplying the brain of too small a size, inadequate heart beat, undeveloped brain and nervous system, deficient digestion, poor blood, organism more or less diseased. Dangerous fatigue should be looked for, he says, when the angles of the mouth are found depressed, there are horizontal furrows across the forehead, the eyes wander or fix nowhere, the pupils are dilated, there is a fullness or blue coloration beneath the eyes, there is seen a broad white line encircling the mouth, there are bright red "blush-spots" on the cheeks or neck, the skin is muddy or hot or dry, the pulse is noted to be unusually slow or rapid,— culminating in "the three 'cardinal symptoms' of danger which all, whether young or old, should heed; namely, a very deep sense of misery in the morning, one or

more 'insistent ideas' which cannot be thrown off, and finally so thorough a wearing out that the subject becomes anæsthetic to fatigue — that is, he is so weary that he cannot feel his own weariness."

9. *By studying and reporting all cases of pupils mentally defective.*

Pupils with serious physical defects — the blind, mute, deaf, etc. — do not as a rule get admission to the public school. Pupils mentally defective, however, are frequently admitted. In the case of such a pupil, his defect often remains undiscovered, or if considered at all, is summarily disposed of as misconduct and treated as a case of discipline. It should be the duty of the teacher to detect such cases, or at least to be suspicious that certain pupils are defective, and the duty of the principal to consider such cases very carefully and diagnose them, with the aid, when it is possible to secure it, of parents and professional experts. Dr. Henderson,[1] subdividing the feeble minded into imbeciles and idiots, distinguishes idiocy as "mental deficiency depending upon malnutrition or disease of the nervous

[1] Charles Richmond Henderson, "Introduction to the Study of Dependent, Defective, and Delinquent Classes," Boston, 1904, p. 174.

centers, occurring either before birth or before the evolution of the mental faculties in childhood," and imbecility as "a less decided degree of mental incapacity." Teachers must remember that "children who are simply slow to understand and backward in learning, but sound in brain, should not be classed with defectives."

Special attention is given to defectives in the New York City schools by the organization of supplementary classes. The four following requirements are emphasized by Superintendent Maxwell: (1) expert supervision; (2) specially trained teachers; (3) properly equipped class rooms; (4) discrimination in choosing children for such classes.

10. *By special consideration for adolescent girls.*

The care of girls at their critical periods is commonly neglected, especially in the elementary schools. There are several reasons for this. 1. The matter is generally regarded as a high school problem, whereas, as a matter of fact, more than a majority of schoolgirls mature while yet in the elementary school. 2. Teachers are careless or inattentive because of ignorance as to the importance of the subject. 3. In many schools the attendance record is overemphasized, and, in consequence, teachers urge their girls, and the girls urge themselves, to

attend school when it would be better for them to absent themselves. 4. Physical adolescence is accompanied by mental characteristics, one of the most prominent of which in many cases is the development and refinement of the sense of duty. Overconscientiousness and fidelity to the requirements of the school lead the girl to neglect her physical well-being.

Teachers should be brought to a proper understanding of this subject. They should read some such book as Dr. Clarke's "Sex in Education." At least, they should understand that any girl who has reached maturity will accomplish a larger total amount of mental work by working steadily through all but two or three days of her month than by working at high pressure throughout the entire month. Moreover, she thus considerably lessens the chances of suffering serious disorder later in life. A clear and frank understanding between the teacher and the mothers of her girls will result in their realizing that the school recognizes instead of disregards the matter, and prefers that the girls shall periodically ease up in their work, either by absenting themselves or by coming to school unprepared in their lessons and free from the necessity

of performing all the school exercises. Teachers, too, should be encouraged to refer special cases of threatened breakdown to the principal. In any class of girls, toward the end of the school year, there are usually two or three brighter than the average, whose ambition and fidelity have outrun a reasonable expenditure of physical energy. Many days before the end of the term they have reached a standing which the average members of the class will not reach by the term's end, and may be profitably advised to absent themselves for a few days to reëstablish their physical equilibrium by free play and exercise in the open air.

11. *By attention to the positive phase of physical development.*

By frequent formal lessons on personal hygiene, the teacher will instruct pupils in good habits which will maintain health and vigor. By formal gymnastics, proper muscular and nervous development will be stimulated. By the encouragement of athletics, pupils will be strengthened along particular lines. (See later discussion, p. 306.)

12. *By regular recesses.*

All pupils of at least the first four years of school should have a scheduled period of recess, which

should come as near the middle of the session as possible, but later rather than earlier than the middle. No child should be deprived of his recess on any disciplinary ground. The recesses of successive classes in a large school require supervision by the teachers;[1] and upon the principal is the duty of arranging so that they shall come at the best possible time and yet not conflict with one another. Within these necessary limitations, pupils should have a maximal amount of freedom. Free play in an outdoor playground is, of course, best. If that is impracticable, organized games under the supervision of the teacher are much better than merely keeping pupils in line throughout the recess period. The principal must provide for proper supervision of the toilet rooms by teachers, janitors, matrons, or monitors.

In the case of the higher grade pupils, if there is no formal recess period, the teacher may profitably have frequent short periods of relaxation, setting-up exercises, or freedom from the ordinary restraints of the class room.

[1] Specifically required in some cities, *e.g.* Worcester: "All pupils must be under the personal supervision of teachers during every recess." — Regulations, Chapter I, Sec. 9.

One of the most serious problems, especially for the new teacher, is the matter of granting the requests of individual pupils to leave the room during the session; if she grants all requests, there is the likelihood that the pupils will take advantage and make frequent and unnecessary requests; if she refuses to grant every request, positive physical injury may result to certain pupils; if she exercises discretion, and permits some pupils and not others, she may misjudge and be regarded as partial and unjust. Many cases of "discipline" originate in this problem. Perhaps the safest general rule to lay down is that teachers should grant *all* requests (with a limitation merely as to the number of pupils to be allowed out of the same room at one time), and either have the pupils report to the principal before returning to the class, or have it understood that any case of what the teacher regards as unnecessary frequency shall be reported to him. Either the pupil is normal and should need to leave the room very infrequently, or he is abnormal, and his case should be referred to his parents for their consideration, with a view to their securing medical advice.

An effective method of control is to provide each teacher with a book wherein is to be entered the name of each pupil

leaving the room and the amount of time lost thereby, emphasizing this factor by calling it a "Time Lost" book. By having the pupils make each his own entry, or by having a monitor near the door make all the entries, the keeping of the record is no tax upon the teacher. Occasional inspection of the record by the principal, with general comment on the amount of time lost, helps to keep down the amount.

Such a record as this often supplies a valuable clew in tracing misdemeanors in the corridors by showing what pupils have been out of their rooms at any particular time.

3. Entrance and Exit

Careful supervision must be given to the entrance and exit of pupils, to the end that these shall be effected in an orderly manner and with safety. It is wise to have some one in authority responsible, at all times, for the supervision of pupils. This necessitates the assignment of teachers or janitors to special duty in playground, play rooms, corridors, etc. If there is a sufficient number of men teachers in the school, they may be assigned to cover all of this duty as regards the boys, leaving to the women teachers the supervision of the girls' playgrounds only. An assignment of teachers to this duty in weekly shifts is probably most satisfactory; it is

not an especially attractive form of service, and five days in succession is usually sufficient to satisfy the most aspiring teacher, for it means her presence in and about the playgrounds and corridors for the half hour or so preceding the opening of both morning and afternoon sessions. The number of teachers assigned to such duty will depend upon the size of the school, the number of pupils, and the area to be supervised. As a general rule it may be expected that from about one sixth to one eighth of the teachers will be required for such duty; that is, the duty will recur for each teacher about once in six or eight weeks.

The rigidity of the discipline to be maintained at these times must vary in degree with conditions. If there is ample playground area, great freedom may be allowed the pupils, permitting them to play games, run about, shout, and otherwise disport themselves as is natural to the genus. On the other hand, if the playground area is limited, such freedom may result in serious accidents to pupils, and hence greater restriction must be placed upon them. It must be remembered, however, that it is better to set a standard of less rigid deportment and have it conformed to, than to make rigid rules which are disregarded.

For instance, it is better not to have a rule of "no talking" than to have such a rule and then allow whispering as a common occurrence; on the other hand, it is better to require "no talking" and get it, than to allow "whispering" and have it grow into boisterous conduct.

As for conduct in halls and on stairways, there is something to be said in favor both of a *laissez-faire* condition and of its opposite — military discipline. When adults attend a concert, church service, or any other gathering, they enter the edifice about as they please, certainly with no military restrictions upon their conduct; so if we are to train pupils for life, we should train them to enter the school building in an orderly manner, but without restraint, not prohibiting them from conversing in ordinary tones, but allowing them to saunter in as they would at any other public building. But military training, learning to act and march in unison, learning to carry one's self with proper posture and poise, are equally valuable accomplishments; hence, the forming of pupils on lines, the maintenance of these lines, and the marching in step, absolute requirement of "no talking," give valuable training and lead to orderly and well-mannered, not to say "showy," passage of pupils.

The various stairways and exits should be numbered or lettered and plainly designated by placards, and in each class room there should be posted a statement of the procedure for regular dismissals.

In many cities periodic emergency dismissals, by way of drill to provide for safe exit in case of actual danger, are required by law or by board rules or both. Even when not specifically required, the principal should have them at least monthly or bimonthly, both for the sake of the actual drill and for the confidence which such drills inspire, so that the public feels that it may trust the school authorities in an emergency. In planning for such drills: —

1. The principal should study the lay of the land about the school building, noting the location of the fire hydrants, the nearest fire alarm station (there should be one in every schoolhouse), and the nearest firehouse.

2. He will figure the route that is likely to be taken by the fire engines in coming to the building, and determine the locations for the best disposition of the pupils when they are out of the building.

The pupils should travel a minimum distance from the school to a place of safety. Each class may be given a

fixed position as related to certain landmarks, posts, trees, etc.; or, if convenient, to houses as known by their numbers. Or, where this is impracticable, the pupils first out from a given exit may go to a stated point and the remaining pupils form a continuous line from the exit. In this case it is especially necessary that some one be assigned to the duty of keeping the sidewalk about the exit free from pupils, and of preventing crowding by other people.

3. He will schedule the exact route to be taken by each class to its position of safety, providing for the non-intersection of files of pupils, and where possible, arranging for the marching of pupils to music.

4. He will arrange a code of signals for emergency dismissal. The larger the building, the less elaborate and complicated should it be. The simplest code is to have two signals, one for an emergency dismissal under ordinary circumstances, in which case the pupils take with them their hats and coats and perhaps their books; the other for an immediate exit without waiting to get their outside clothing. The two signals, whether by class-room electric bells, hall gongs, or central bell, should be sufficiently distinct so that they will not be confused with each other or with the signal for regular dismissal.

Two strokes of a gong, as distinguished from five strokes, is much better than signals of one and two strokes, of two and three, etc., for the teacher may have difficulty in determining which the signal is if the two differ by only a single stroke. Moreover, if there are several gongs located at different points, more than one of them is likely to be heard by each teacher and the strokes will merge one into another.

To obviate the danger from failure of the signalling apparatus to work, the regular signals may be supplemented by a "still alarm," in which monitors pass quickly from room to room, displaying some form of signal card.

5. He will post in each room a placard showing exactly what is required of teachers and pupils in case of drill.

For example:—

EMERGENCY DRILL

SIGNALS: *Five* strokes of hall gongs,
Pupils go *without* wraps and hats.
Two strokes of hall gongs,
Pupils go with wraps and hats.

(Note: Signals are to the teacher and *not* to the pupils.)

ORDER: *All* pupils in Room *15*
use stairway and exit *B*,
following pupils of Room *25*
and preceding pupils of Room *35*,
and line up in front of *282 Fulton St.*

(Note: Pupils start from the room in *double* line and maintain this double formation throughout the entire drill.)

(Note: There shall be *absolute quiet* throughout the entire drill.)

RETURN: Upon signal, pupils return to the class rooms in the reverse order of that in which they went out.

In the conduct of drills the following rules are suggested: —

1. Do not have drills in unfit weather. Especially do not drill pupils in immediate exit except when it is warm enough to make it safe for their going out without hats and wraps.

2. Test signalling apparatus frequently.

3. Have drills under varying conditions: —

(*a*) At various hours during the regular class work.

(*b*) During an assembly.

(*c*) During a recess.

4. Occasionally block off a stairway, hallway, or exit, or imagine them blocked off, so that safe exit might be made were such difficulties real.

Certain general precautions should be taken: —

1. Train the janitor not to permit the accumula-

tion of rubbish or waste, and assign him specific duties in case of drill, such as promptly fastening open the various doors and stationing himself at a certain position or in charge of a certain territory.

2. Confer with the fire and police authorities. They will usually exhibit genuine interest in school drills and often make valuable suggestions.

3. Train teachers to keep themselves under good control during a drill. Discuss frankly with them the actual chances of danger.[1] If the building is a modern, fireproof structure, point out how difficult it would be to organize a fire in it that would burn up the pupils, showing that the sole danger is from panic. If the building has certain defects of structure from the fire-risk side, explain the conditions and the means of minimizing the dangers.

4. Assure teachers that during a drill they are authorized to exercise military law if necessary. If a pupil should call out "Fire," or make similar outcry, he should be dealt with summarily. Corporal punishment, however unjustifiable at any other

[1] Note the language of the Indianapolis rule: "The principals shall give such instruction to assistants as will prepare them to act prudently and promptly in case of an alarm of fire. . . ." — Art. XIV, Sec. 3.

time, will be condoned, and in fact applauded, by public sentiment and school authorities, when it is thus employed to prevent serious panic among little children.

5. Have teachers instruct pupils in advance explicitly as to their duties in case of drill. Warn them that the signals are for the teacher and not for them, and that they are to make no move until ordered to by the teacher. It is probably best to direct pupils to keep one hand on hand rails while going downstairs.

A single exit from each room is better than more than one. In case of emergency, the teacher can quickly gain this single exit, command it, and from this vantage point control her class and forestall panic.

6. Aim, first, for good order and freedom from panic; only after these are secure put emphasis upon the element of speed.

CHAPTER VIII

THE PRINCIPAL AND THE PUPILS' SCHOLASTIC PROGRESS

THE responsibility of the principal for the scholastic advancement of his pupils presents special problems in organization and supervision which are considered in this order: (1) the admission of pupils, (2) the grading of pupils, (3) the departmental plan, (4) the rating of pupils, (5) the promotion of pupils, (6) the class-room work, (7) examinations.

1. The Admission of Pupils

In admitting a new pupil the principal must assign him to such a grade in the school as shall give the pupil a fair balance between his capacity to work and the necessity of his working. If he presents a card of transfer from some other school within the same system, professional etiquette, if not a specific rule of the department, demands that he shall be placed in the same grade as he was in the former school. If he comes from another system, and presents a certificate of discharge indicating his grade, the principal has to take into consideration the difference

in the curricula of the two systems. In this case and in the case of the pupil who has no documentary evidence of his previous school record, the principal must be guided by the conditions. By a simple oral or written test he may ascertain approximately both the pupil's accumulated stock of knowledge and his ability to take up new work. If he is farther advanced in some subjects than in others, he may properly be assigned to such a grade as shall credit him with the advanced knowledge and yet make him put forth considerable effort in the others. Assignment should be on trial, and should be clearly so stated. It is better, as a rule, to put the pupil in the higher of two possible grades with the understanding that he will have a certain number of days in which to prove his ability to stay there, than to put him in the lower grade on the assumption that he needs the "foundation" work. When he is given such a trial, he should understand that no disgrace is to attach to his reduction in grade if later it is found that he has been graded too high.

2. The Grading of Pupils

The proper grading of pupils is one of the unsolved pedagogic problems of the day. The "district

school" represents the extreme type of individual instruction, each pupil practically in a grade by himself. The large city school with four or five classes — two hundred or more pupils — in a single grade, represents the extreme type of mass instruction. How, in a large school, with large classes inevitable, shall the happy mean be reached between individual and mass teaching? The principal should understand the broad features of the problem, especially the fact that the size of classes and the quality of the teaching is at root a financial matter, and should exercise his influence in urging the public to more liberal expenditure. But the practical administrative problem before the principal is how he shall get the most effective teaching for the individual through the mass, under the actual conditions and with limited equipment. With a hundred or more pupils gathered into the same grade in two or more classes and under two or more teachers, how much sacrifice of the bright pupils to the dull is involved? With a teacher necessarily regulating her work with the so-called "average" pupil in mind, both bright and dull pupils lose; the bright pupil loses ambition and interest through waiting for the dull to "catch up," and the dull pupil be-

comes discouraged through the comparison that is ever in evidence between him and the bright members of his class. But shall we deprive the dull pupil of the stimulus of the brighter minds by keeping him always in association with pupils of equal dullness? There is, too, a limit to the reduction in size of classes, fixed by pedagogic considerations. If twenty-four pupils in a class is twice as good a condition as forty-eight pupils in the class, it does not follow that twelve pupils would be again twice as favorable. The value of society membership, of development along lines of social efficiency, of the friction of mind on mind that produces polish, is not to be underestimated.

The general problem of gradation has been attacked by many educators with various schemes and with varying results.

By the Cambridge plan, pupils can finish a course normally of $2x$ years in either $2x$, $2x-1$, or $2x-2$ years, through the opportunity for transfer at the end of x years: —

$$\frac{\text{Course A, extending over } 2x \text{ years}}{x \text{ years} \quad + \quad x \text{ years}} = 2x \text{ years}$$

Transfer point

$$\frac{\text{Course B, extending over } 2x-2 \text{ years}}{x-1 \text{ years} \quad + \quad x-1 \text{ years}} = 2x-2 \text{ years}$$

Transfer point

$$\frac{\text{Course on A,} \quad \text{transferring to B}}{x \text{ years} \quad + \quad x-1 \text{ years}} = 2x-1 \text{ years}$$

Transfer point

$$\frac{\text{Course on B,} \quad \text{transferring to A}}{x-1 \text{ years} \quad + \quad x \text{ years}} = 2x-1 \text{ years}$$

Transfer point

The Elizabeth plan of Superintendent Shearer's provides for twenty-five or thirty grades, with continual readjustment of pupils, grouping according to essentials and individual ability, the location and removal of certain, definite "danger-points," and other features designed to push pupils rapidly from entrance to exit of the elementary school.

According to the idealized "Pueblo" plan of Dr. Search's, each student is the unit, working by and for himself, with long study periods and ample facilities.

The "Batavia" system, designed by Superintendent Kennedy, provides for large classes of pupils, each class in a single room with two teachers, who receive

class instruction and special drill on weak spots by groups.

The New York method allows the formation in each school of three types of specially graded classes, known as C, D, and E classes: "C" for non-English-speaking pupils who are given special drill in English and removed to a regular grade as soon as possible; "D" for the instruction in the "essential" subjects of pupils who are soon to be fourteen years old (the legal minimum age in New York State at which a pupil may leave school for work) and who would not reach the legal requirements as to scholarship were they to remain in the regular grades; "E" for pupils above the normal age of their respective grades who are given special instruction to enable them to "skip" certain grades.

Under ordinary circumstances, in any liberal system, the principal may relieve exceptional conditions by modifications of some of these various plans, or by the expedient of group teaching, forming grades within grades.

3. The Departmental Plan

One of the present-day features in organization closely related to the matter of grading, is the "de-

partmental" system, which introduces into the higher grades of the elementary school the method of the secondary schools, whereby each teacher carries one or two subjects through successive grades, instead of teaching all the subjects of one grade.

The chief arguments advanced in favor of the departmental plan are: —

(*a*) *On behalf of the teacher.*

1. The teacher cannot master all subjects.

This would seem to be something of a reflection upon the ability of the teacher. Is it not a little absurd to talk of "specialists" in the subjects of the elementary school curriculum, especially where the more "special" subjects of music, drawing, etc., are usually supervised, if not taught, by trained artists? A specialist of arithmetic? A specialist in spelling? In secondary and college education the student chooses his work from among a host of optional studies, and it would be unreasonable, of course, to expect any one teacher to carry, for instance, Latin, German, calculus, biology, rhetoric, and economics; but in the elementary school the pupil takes the "whole dose," and is it unreasonable to expect the teacher to do the same?

2. The teacher's preparation is thorough and easier.

Being concerned with but one subject, her mind can readily prepare at different levels along the same line of

thought; and the subject being that in which, presumably, she is most interested, intensive study will result.

3. High scholarship in the teacher is encouraged.

4. Teachers may become advanced specialists.

This opens the way for the promotion of elementary school teachers into the high schools, and thus gives them added stimulus and incentive to enthusiastic work, which reacts in its benefit to the pupils.

(*b*) *On behalf of the pupils.*

5. The teachers *must* prepare.

As each set of pupils meets each teacher but once in the day, the teacher cannot afford to leave a single period unprepared. By the old plan, teaching the same class all day, she may slight one or two lessons without its being noticed by the pupils.

6. The teaching is more inspiring.

The teacher is interested in her "specialty" and is herself inspired by her subject and by the change of classes.

7. The teaching is more effective.

The teacher can follow up the individual pupil through his successive difficulties in the subject she teaches.

8. Pupils come in contact with many minds.

They are relieved from the tedium of listening to one voice for five or six hours daily and of reacting constantly toward the same personality.

9. The transition from the elementary to the high school is easier.

And yet the transition from single-class instruction to departmental has to be made at some time. Shall it be made at the end of the sixth school year, when it involves a much larger number of pupils, or at the end of the eighth year?

(*c*) *On behalf of the administration.*

10. The work of the school may be planned more systematically and completely, and better unified.

The work in each subject is better unified when the same teacher carries out the plan for merging each term's work into the next, than when the transition from term to term is made by several teachers.

11. There is a saving of time and effort.

A maximal amount of energy will be secured in the service of any group of teachers when they are working in directions most agreeable to them.

12. Rooms may be equipped for each subject.

This is perhaps the most substantial gain made under this plan. All the teaching of history can be done in a single room which is fitted with charts, maps, historical library, etc., and a single collection of this material suffices for several classes. Similarly, a room for geography may have its equipment of globes, atlases, gazetteers, molding boards, stereoscopes, and views, etc.; the room for draw-

ing, its models, casts, artist's materials; the room for mathematics, its weights and measures, charts, models, statistical reference-books; and so on through all the subjects of the curriculum.

Against the plan it may be said: —

(*a*) *On behalf of the teachers.*

1. It tends to narrow the teachers.

A teacher devoting herself day-in and day-out to a single subject is prone sooner or later to run in the single groove and to lose that interest in the varied things of life which make for general culture. Proper supervision by the principal ought, however, to prevent such a condition.

(*b*) *On behalf of the pupils.*

2. The subjects are taught instead of the pupils.

There is danger that the child is lost sight of, and the subject becomes the center of the teacher's interest. She becomes the teacher of "arithmetic" instead of the teacher of the "Seven A Boys."

3. The personal care of pupils is lessened.

Each teacher has four or five times as many pupils as she would have under the other plan. She is thus "spread out thin" over the classes, and her knowledge of and attention to individual pupils and their needs can be but a fourth or fifth of what it otherwise would be. Again, as a result of the division of responsibility, there is danger that each teacher may take the view that she must not show

special interest in a pupil, either because the other teachers might resent it, or on the assumption that some other teacher probably is taking the necessary interest.

4. The demands of specialists are excessive.

Each teacher, held strictly responsible for results in a given subject, pushes her pupils to the utmost. Whatever they may do in their other studies, they *must* do her work. So, with all the teachers urging in this way, the demand upon the time and energy of the pupils amounts to an overpowering total. This danger should be avoided by careful supervision, whereby the principal has frequent conferences with the teachers, issues definite directions limiting the amount of work assignable, and assures himself that his directions are followed.

5. The studying is done largely outside the class.

Each teacher jealously guards all the time assigned to *her* subject from encroachment for purposes of study. This, again, is a matter for intelligent supervision.

(*c*) *On behalf of the administration.*

6. The making of the time schedule is difficult and unsatisfactory.

It is difficult because of the many factors involved, and it requires from the most expert of principals the expenditure of a tremendous amount of energy.

It is unsatisfactory, after it is made, because the factors of fatigue have to be almost entirely neglected. If the

same teacher has to conduct classes in mathematics throughout a school day, half of the classes are bound to be pushed to hard exertion at a time when the natural "curve of vitality" is at or near a minimum.

7. Disorder of pupils is encouraged.

Periodic passing of pupils from room to room, if the pupils change rooms, or the leaving of pupils unsupervised, if it is the teachers who change, tends to confusion, if not to actual disorder. But this, too, is a matter for supervision and regulation. The relaxation gained by pupils by a few minutes' change of position ought to react favorably upon their conduct during the succeeding period.

8. Correlation is secured with difficulty, if at all.

This is an offset to advantage 10. Strong coördination of work from grade to grade is gained at the expense of proper correlation.

9. It is difficult to secure competent substitutes.

Almost any substitute can go into a class and "hold it" after a fashion for a day or two. The same person would have much greater difficulty in attempting to carry the work of a subject in several classes. Regular teachers of lower grades can be understudied for such emergencies.

The superintendent of one of the largest cities in the United States abandoned the departmental plan on account of this single disadvantage, which in that city proved serious.

10. The family spirit of the school is weakened.

After all, the pupils in the elementary school are children, and though a large percentage of those in the last two years are adolescent, they still need the guiding hand and personal touch of a friendly teacher who shall be all-in-all to them — who shall be as the law assumes, *in loco parentis*.

11. Administrative energy expended is out of proportion to the results gained.

A large amount of energy is given out by principal and teachers in making the plan "work." More thought in the construction of the programme and oversight in administering it, more frequent conferences with teachers, more detailed supervision of pupils' conduct, more problems of adjustment — all these are factors in the amount of time and energy expended by the principal. If the results gained are commensurate, then of course their cost is not to be considered, and will not be by the conscientious principal; but if they are not, then the school will profit more by the principal's doing of other things.

In working on the departmental plan,[1] compliance with the following principles will probably increase its effectiveness: —

[1] An extended discussion of this subject, favorable to the plan, is given in Van Evrie Kilpatrick, "Departmental Teaching in Elementary Schools," New York, 1908.

1. Each teacher must have more than one subject.

This will help to answer criticisms 1, 2, 4, and 5.

2. The teachers must be in harmony with one another and fairly well satisfied with their subjects.

If there are discordant elements among the teachers, it would be well to postpone the plan until the discordant ones can be eliminated. So far as it is possible, each teacher should have subjects of her own choice, subjects in which she is especially interested and subjects which she can teach well.

3. The point must be settled as to whether the pupils change rooms or the teachers change.

If the former, the advantage of specially equipped rooms is gained; if the latter, the advantage of less confusion in the corridors. Under ordinary conditions, the former outweighs the latter.

4. Each class should have a "class teacher" for general guidance.

This teacher should be with the pupils at the opening and at the closing periods and for some other considerable length of time; for her to have her own class during the entire afternoon session seems advisable. This teacher should be responsible for the records of the class, and through her efforts objections 3 and 10, and perhaps 4 and 5, should be met.

5. It would seem best to omit the highest grade from the departmental plan.

This gives an opportunity for the "graduating" teachers to correlate and round off the work of the various teachers in the grades below, and to give a finishing touch of personal influence to the pupils, providing, of course, that these teachers are expertly qualified for this special work.

4. The Rating of Pupils

However he may regard the subject of marks, estimates, and ratings, in its academic aspects, the principal faces the practical fact that in every system of schools some uniform provision is made for the periodic ratings of pupils and reporting of those ratings to parents. In some cities ratings are required in extended detail, a percentage mark being given in each of many subjects of the curriculum; in others, a mere statement as to whether the pupil's work has been satisfactory or not is all that is required. The tendency seems to be away from arithmetical ratings, and toward a few arbitrary characters which represent various degrees of proficiency, and away from a detailed statement accounting for every subject studied, and toward a general statement as to the character of the pupil's work as a whole.

In some cases the pupil's effort is rated distinctively from his proficiency, and in nearly all systems the pupil's deportment is given a separate rating.

Whatever the prescribed system under which the principal is working, there are a few general considerations which will influence him in carrying out its provisions.

On the mechanical side, the principal must secure prompt and accurate records as made by the teachers. If the records are due at a certain stated time of the week or month, it is the duty of the principal to see that they are recorded by that time. It is his duty to see that teachers and pupils clearly understand the meaning and significance of the rating-marks employed.

"Report cards" are usually sent to the parents periodically[1] for them to sign and return to the school. When this is the case, it is to be remembered that the card is but a transcript, and is not the original record; therefore, the record by the teacher must be made first and the report card written afterward.

[1] In most cities the same card is used throughout the term; but in Richmond, for instance, a new record sheet is issued every four weeks.

The principal may often enhance the importance of the ratings in the minds of the pupils by distributing the "cards" himself. A judicious word of praise to the praiseworthy, and a word of comment quietly spoken to the unsatisfactory, have their effect. If properly handled in this way, the report card is given a dignity and importance that are valuable; on the other hand, any system of distribution by the principal should be so flexible as to take into account conditions local to any class, or temporary conditions applicable to all classes, which may make it advisable that the distribution should be made by the teachers.

Occasionally there is difficulty in securing the return of report cards with the parent's signature. If, as is usually the case, this is the fault of the pupil, the teacher must follow up the individual case so closely as to prevent tardy return of the cards becoming a habit. But if the fault is the parent's, it must be remembered that the school cannot *compel* the parent to sign his name. The safest attitude to take is that the card is issued as a courtesy, as a transcript of the record and not as the record itself, on the assumption that the parent is interested in the school progress of his child; consequently, if the

parent refuses to sign the card, as a few do on the ground that the rating is unfair and with the curious theory that their refusal may in some way alter its record, the school may accept it as meaning that the parent does not appreciate the courtesy and that no further cards need be issued to his child.

As to the ratings themselves, the principal must secure judicious marking by the teachers. Teachers must keep in mind that ratings usually should not be based upon written memoranda alone, certainly not upon written "tests" alone; that a brief absence need not necessarily interfere seriously with a pupil's proficiency and progress; that *relative* excellence of work is what is to be recorded and not an absolute condition measured against perfection; and that under all ordinary conditions, if a class as a whole does not do satisfactory work, it is the teacher's fault. The principal will have to inspect ratings periodically to correct lapses along these lines. Particularly must he prevent the common condition where the pupils suffer an unjustifiable drop in their ratings at the beginning of each new term: the pupil is promoted with a maximum rating, and then his new teacher, in order to impress him with the fact that now that he is in her class he *must* work, gives

him a low rating the first month, whereas he has actually worked more faithfully and effectively than in the previous month. Where the system provides a separate mark for effort and proficiency, the principal must look out for such cases as a pupil with excellent effort and very poor results, or a pupil with unsatisfactory effort and excellent results. In either case it would seem that the pupil is misgraded, too high in the former case and too low in the latter.

5. The Promotion of Pupils

Certain uniform regulations regarding the promotion of pupils are in force in any system of schools. Promotions may be made regularly at the end of a "term" varying in length in different cities; perhaps the most general practice provides for two terms in each year. There are arguments for and against a short term, but as the principal has little to do with fixing the period, they are not considered here. The method of determining promotions is in some systems fixed even to details, but usually there is considerable latitude allowed the principals and teachers.

A few suggestions are offered on the general subject: —

1. Promotions should not be based solely upon

final examinations or tests, either written or oral. Many a hard-working, conscientious pupil of nervous temperament is less able to pass successfully a written examination than some less deserving, happy-go-lucky, careless classmate.

2. The "educational value" of the various subjects of the curriculum should be taken into account and the pupil's work in each given proportionate credit. An arithmetical average of a pupil's results in English, mathematics, history, geography, drawing, and music, for instance, would not fairly represent his all-around ability, for a high music rating due to native talent in that particular direction might more than offset a low rating in English, a subject which includes the various subtopics of composition, reading, memorizing, spelling, and grammar.

3. Probably the best plan for promotion is to forward all pupils whom the teacher regards as unquestionably worthy of promotion, and to give a written examination to settle the cases regarding which the teacher is in doubt. Even if the practice is to promote upon the teacher's estimate alone, the pupil should have the right of appeal and the right to demand a formal test of his fitness. It is, therefore, wise for the principal to anticipate such

appeals by giving a formal examination to all pupils regarded by the teachers as deficient. The record of such examinations with the results, together with the pupils' answer papers, should, of course, be preserved, so that when an appeal is made, the principal is armed with documentary evidence.

4. A pupil should be promoted: (*a*) when he has satisfactorily completed the work of his grade; (*b*) when he is prepared to do the work of the succeeding grade. A pupil may not have complied with (*a*) on account of absence or other circumstances, and yet comply with (*b*).

Whether misconduct should operate to prevent the promotion of a pupil is perhaps a debatable question. It is safe to say that it should not, but that it does; that is, as a matter of record a pupil who has misbehaved and nevertheless has been proficient in his school work should not be kept back by his misbehavior; and yet as a matter of fact his misbehavior if at all serious will operate to prevent his reaching satisfactory proficiency.[1]

[1] Cincinnati recognizes conduct as a factor: "A satisfactory standing in daily work, with good deportment, shall be accepted as evidence of the ability of pupils to do successfully the work of the next higher grade." — Rules, Reg. 34, Sec. 1.

It is also a question as to whether a pupil should ever be promoted on "length of service"; shall a pupil who has already spent two half-year terms in a grade without getting satisfactory results be held back to attempt the work of that grade for a third term? The answer undoubtedly is that the pupil should be placed in that grade where he will receive the maximal amount of educative experience.[1] If he has spent two terms in a grade where learning to read is the chief business, probably he should stay the third term in order to attend to that business. If he has spent two terms in one grade, and has accomplished satisfactory results in some subjects and has fallen woefully behind in others, he probably should go ahead. If he is an all-around dull pupil who has already lost interest in the subject-matter of the grade and who has gotten from that grade and from that teacher all that he ever can get,

[1] Cf. Superintendent Brumbaugh: "The pupil in an elementary school should not remain in a grade beyond the time indicated save only for considerations of ill health or inability to pursue profitably more advanced work." — p. 16. "The basis of promotion is thus seen to be not a quantitative mastery of subject-matter as found in the course of instruction, but a qualitative result in terms of mental power acquired. The basis is not objective, but subjective." — p. 12. Annual Report, Philadelphia, 1906.

he probably should be promoted to a new field; he may be passed along in this way without serious injury until he reaches the legal age for leaving for work, though a diploma or certificate of graduation ought not to be given him on any such basis of continued promotions. Throughout, the word *probably* has been used advisedly; the individual case should be considered every time; the formulation of any inflexible rule that no pupil should remain in a grade three terms, or the contrary rule that no pupil should be promoted who has not rigidly qualified for promotion, would react unfavorably upon the life of the school, and should be avoided. A pupil who is much above the average age of his class and yet has not earned promotion, may properly be put forward on the ground that a large factor in his failure is his sensitiveness to the fact that he is out of his social set, a sensitiveness which is natural and more commonly present than many teachers recognize.

5. It should be possible to promote pupils occasionally during a term, but under ordinary and normal conditions this should be done sparingly. It is better to promote a bright pupil at the beginning of the term on trial than to keep him in the lower grade and then later in the term "jump" him ahead.

6. It should be possible to reduce a pupil in grade at any time, but this, too, should be a measure largely of a disciplinary character (disciplinary in the broader sense of the term), to be used sparingly. It should be done only (1) after ample evidence, written the best, that the pupil's lack of effort justifies it, (2) after conference or, at least, attempted conference with the parent, (3) with the parent's consent, or better, at his request. A better plan, usually, is to make "trial" promotions at the beginning of the term of all doubtful pupils, so that it is clearly understood that promotion has not been earned, and that, if the pupil's further effort does not justify his retention in the advanced grade, he shall be replaced in the lower grade without argument.

7. In promoting pupils, even in a large school, the best disposition of each pupil should be made. It is often the case that the best interests of a pupil demand that, after promotion, he shall be in a certain class of his grade; he may have friends who are a source of inspiration to him and with whom he should be continued; he may have companions from whom it is wise to separate him; he may have a temperament that will be better understood by one teacher than by another; he may be better off in a mixed

class than in a class composed only of his own sex, or *vice versa;* etc. Similarly, if he fails of promotion, his best interests may demand that he should remain with the teacher he has had, or that he be transferred to another class and teacher in the grade. All of these individual matters should receive attention; but in a school of hundreds or thousands of pupils this can be done only by careful and systematic planning.

The following plan is suggested: Teachers enter records of promotional examinations on sheets arranged thus: —

EXAMINATION FOR PROMOTION

CLASS---------- ----------190---

Pupils Delinquent in Term's Work

NAME	AGE	NO. TERMS IN GRADE	TERM RATING	SUBJECTS				EXAM. AVE.	DISPOSITION

Each teacher files this record with the principal only after personal conference with him; together they decide, and enter the decision in the last column, as to each pupil,

whether he shall be promoted regularly, promoted on trial, or held back.

The completion of this record determines the promotion figures for each class. Each teacher files two sheets, printed, let us say, in *black*, arranged thus: —

PROMOTED

----------BOYS, ----------GIRLS, FROM ROOM----------

No.	NAME ACCORDING TO RANK	TERM AVE.	No.	NAME ACCORDING TO RANK	TERM AVE.

and the second the same arrangement but headed

LEFT BACK

If there is a particular disposition which a teacher thinks should be made of a pupil, such as not promoting him to a mixed class or keeping him in her own class instead of leaving him back with another teacher, she notes her suggestion opposite the name on the *Black* Sheet.

From the Black Sheets, the principal makes entries in columns 3, 4, 5, 8, 11, and 14, in the following —

RECORD SHEET

----------190--.

Class	Room	Register before Promotion		Promoted						Left Back						Register after Promotion					
				Boys			Girls			Boys			Girls			Boys			Girls		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Number	To Room	Total	Number	To Room	Total	Number	To Room	Total	Number	To Room	Total	Number	From Room	Total	Number	From Room
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22

By adding all the Left Backs in all the classes of a given grade to all the promotions from all the classes of the grade below, he obtains the total new register for the grade. He apportions this equally among the classes of the grade and thus gets entries for columns 17 and 20. He then apportions the boys in 5 to the different rooms to which it is possible to send them and makes entries for 6 and 7; the girls in 8 similarly and enters 9 and 10, etc., completing the Record Sheet.

He next checks the names on the Black Sheets from the figures on the Record Sheet, indicating the rooms that they

are to be sent to, and returns the Black Sheets to the teachers together with a set of, say, Red Sheets, arranged thus: —

PROMOTED

_____Boys, _____Girls, from Room_____ to Room_____

No.	Names, Alphabetically	Born	Residence	Parent's Name

and the same, headed

LEFT BACK

There will be one sheet for each different transfer of pupils, making, in practice, from two to perhaps eight sheets for each set. The teacher keeps the Black Sheets and files the Red Sheets. The principal reassembles the Red Sheets, pasting all those of the same "To Room" together, and sends these, which show the rolls of the new classes, to the respective teachers. At promotion time each teacher promotes from her Black Sheets and receives and checks up her promotions from her Red Sheets.

6. The Class-room Work

In the following discussion of the business of the teacher and her class, no attempt is made to

exhaust the subject, for that would be impossible; or to theorize on the subject, for that would be unprofitable; or to dogmatize on the subject, for that would be idle: the aim is merely to summarize, with a few rather random suggestions, the class-room work as seen from the principal's office.

In these days of professional training it might be thought that a licensed teacher, once secured and placed in charge of a class, would be preordained to certain success. As a matter of fact, not only will she need practical guidance along the lines discussed in the foregoing chapters, but, constantly during the years of her novitiate and occasionally throughout her entire career, she will need encouraging reminders as to the fundamental principles of class-room management. Presumably she is trained in pedagogy, but it is the exceptional teacher who can immediately carry that training intelligently into the daily detail of the practical work with a class, unaided and uninspired. Presumably she has studied the history of education, familiarized herself with the significant world movements, and learned the secrets of the great masters of the art of teaching; presumably she has vanquished all the perplexities of psychology and laid bare the secret

processes of the human mind; presumably she has educed and induced and deduced all the known methods of teaching. But fortunate indeed is the teacher who, face to face with a concrete class of fifty, can constrict world movements into the limits of her room, recall even the names of the master pedagogues, discover any psychologic principles permeating her environment, or put method into the prevailing madness. In time, with more or less aid, she will reduce chaos to order and reach the point where her professional progress really begins. It is at this point that the principal may lead the teacher to review the literature she studied while in training, but which she is now prepared to appreciate with an "apperceptive basis" that was wholly lacking in the earlier days. She is prepared to perceive more clearly the full significance of education and the purpose of the public school, to understand aright the needs of pupils and the function of the teacher, and to apply her native ingenuity to her daily routine with increasing skill.

It is a chief duty of the principal to lead the teacher, in the performance of her detailed work in the class room, away from obsolete and inadequate standards toward rational thinking and high ideals.

She must get away from any notion that education is merely a pouring-in and pumping-out process, or that the recitation, important as it is, is the chief aim or sole activity of the school.

Particularly must the teacher appreciate the necessity for eliminating waste in her administration of the class room.[1] For instance: "Violations of the laws of mental development and crude class administration lead to losses of time and effort which would not be tolerated in a properly managed business — losses resulting from: poor grading; poor grouping; awkward distribution of material; teaching form divorced from thought; teaching unrelated ideas; waiting for slow pupils; combating wrong habits resulting from poor initial teaching. These and other sources of subtle waste exhaust the energy of the average teacher and leave her overwhelmed, discouraged, while twice the work required of the grade is done with ease and pleasure by the teacher who can either instinctively or reflectively apply to every phase of her problem the principle of economy." [2]

[1] *See* Bagley, "Classroom Management," Part I, with which every teacher should be familiar.

[2] Miss Margaret McCloskey, General Supervisor, Newark, in Fiftieth Annual Report of the Board of Education, p. 204.

A fruitful source of waste is "inattention." Inattention, when of a single pupil or two, during a development lesson, for instance, cannot be regarded as a serious matter; but when it shows signs of becoming general, the teacher should rapidly apply the following criteria: —

1. Note the ventilation: if improper,[1] regulate it; if apparently satisfactory, then,

2. Note the temperature: if abnormal, rectify it; if normal, then,

3. Note whether the pupils are fatigued: if they have been working too intensively or too continuously along one line and consequently are physically tired, change the subject; if not, then,

4. Note whether the pupils are wearied: if the teaching method has been dull and uninteresting and the pupils consequently are mentally tired, change the method, or give up the lesson until a better method can be prepared, and in the meantime change to an occupation that will command attention.

The daily schedule of any class is an alternation of Work and Relaxation. In securing proper alterna-

[1] "When carbonic acid gas is present in a schoolroom to the extent of six parts to ten thousand of pure air, organic matter enough to poison the air is present. The effect on the children is drowsiness, stupidity, and fatigue." — ROWE, *op. cit.*, p. 151.

tion, it may be remembered, (1) that relaxation may take the form of either rest or recreation; (2) that gymnastics are not essentially relaxing, but, measured by the amount of normal fatigue produced, rank with the formal studies such as arithmetic and grammar; (3) that five two-minute periods of setting-up exercises are more valuable as relaxation than a ten-minute period of physical culture; and (4) that rest has been defined as a change of occupation, so that there is a certain degree of relaxation resulting from the proper alternation of the different phases of work.

The very atmosphere of the class room should be one of Work. We need not elaborate nor discuss the classifications of the different phases of work made by the writers on method, as, for instance, the distinctions, according to Dr. Bagley, between *imitation* and *object teaching*, between *instruction* and *development*, between *intellectual* and *emotional* transmission. It is assumed that "successful teaching is conditioned in no small degree upon an adequate understanding of the structure and functions of typical lessons,"[1] and the principal must encourage teachers to gain this understanding.

[1] Bagley, "Educative Process," p. 284.

Sufficient for our purpose is it if we think of the work of the pupils as that which is Independent and that which is Dependent.

"The school is not so much an agency whose function it is to feed the mind as it is an agency whose function it is to create an appetite to know. At the outset the pupil is almost entirely dependent upon the guidance of the teacher. At the end the pupil should be practically independent of the teacher's guidance. This transition is slow. But it must be constantly planned for and as constantly realized. The supplanting of objective guidance by subjective guidance is the best evidence of healthy growth in the spiritual unfolding of the child. This may be converted into the maxim: the business of the teacher is to make herself increasingly unnecessary to the pupil. The teacher's skill and efficiency alike are conditioned in no small degree by this maxim." [1]

It is true that the pupil can be trained to independence only through a long apprenticeship of dependence upon his teachers and his fellow-pupils, yet it is a too common fault for teachers to keep pupils dependent too much and too long. Hence it is a prime duty of the principal constantly to cor-

[1] Superintendent M. G. Brumbaugh, in Annual Report, Philadelphia, 1906, p. 10.

rect this tendency, which shows itself in many ways, among them the following: —

1. Pupils are not worked hard enough.

". . . it may suffice to say here that if the pupil does not sometimes find his school work disagreeable, then something is radically wrong either with the pupil or with the school or with both." [1]

2. A false conception of "order."

"It is quite possible for a school to be too quiet. All unnecessary quietness that is attained through positive pain of the pupils is excessive. . . . But a sharp distinction is to be made between the necessary noise of earnest industry and the wilful confusion resulting from unrestrained mischief." [2]

3. Teachers talk too much; they occupy the center of the stage when many times they should be in the audience or at most in the prompter's box.

"It must be remembered that the two elements in all education are impression and expression, and that while the former is necessary as furnishing a fund of material, the latter is that upon which growth in power, facility, and adaptation depends." [3]

[1] Bagley, "Educative Process," p. 331.

[2] Larkin Dunton, *Education*, Feb., 1892, p. 324.

[3] Superintendent Clarence F. Carroll, in Annual Report for 1903–1904, Rochester, New York.

4. Pupils are not allowed sufficient time for thought and expression, but are ruthlessly interrupted by the teacher and other pupils. "The governing principle of the recitation should be, not competition, but coöperation." [1]

The promiscuous raising of hands by pupils anxious to help the one reciting is a prevalent habit which is usually unnecessary, disconcerting, discourteous, and altogether unjustifiable, and which, once in vogue, will require persistent attention before it is effectively repressed.

There are times, of course, during a recitation when the raising of hands may legitimately and profitably be called for or permitted, but it requires intelligent supervision.

But it must also be remembered "that the interruption of a pupil's train of thought is just as harmful when made by a teacher as when made by another pupil." [2]

5. The study period is neglected. Pupils' study, either in school or at home, may be for two purposes: (*a*) *preparatory*, to gather material for a subsequent lesson; and (*b*) *supplementary*, dealing with the results of a previous lesson. In either case, this study should be independent of the teacher or other helper, and yet the pupil can reach complete inde-

[1] Samuel T. Dutton, "Social Phases of Education in the School and the Home," New York, 1900, p. 24.

[2] Larkin Dunton *Education*, Feb., 1892, p. 324.

pendence only through the directive guidance of the skillful teacher who gradually and adroitly withdraws her support.

6. Lessons are unwisely assigned. If too much or too difficult, a premium is put upon the pupil's getting help which weakens rather than strengthens him; if too little or too easy, the pupil is left untrained in self-effort. The balance is struck when the work assigned is possible of accomplishment in the time at hand by the pupil unaided, yet only by the output of deliberate and honest effort.

7. Motives are neglected. Pupils are set at work which they can regard only as a task because they see no benefit, immediate or future, which could possibly accrue from its performance.

8. Text-books are misused. Either they become a form of fetish, encouraging pupils in their natural helplessness, or they are neglected and the pupils deprived of their rational aid.

7. Examinations

The words *test* and *examination* are used somewhat loosely in pedagogic discussion. In one sense, a test is but an abbreviated examination, a word introduced in late years as a refined and soothing sub-

stitute for the harsh-sounding and much-condemned examination. In another sense, the test is the broader term, comprising examination and all other forms of testing, even including the daily recitation. Yet another use is to apply test to oral review and examination to written review.

"The ordinary examination is a test of success, usually of a mechanical sort." — DR. WHITE.[1]

"An examination is a partial test of both knowledge and power." — SUPERINTENDENT GILBERT.[2]

"Some years ago oral tests were largely discarded for written examinations." — DR. DUTTON.[3]

"The efficiency of instruction may be tested by a careful application of the method of formal examinations." — DR. BAGLEY.[4]

In what follows, the words *test* and *examination* will be used synonymously to include all kinds, oral or written, of *formal* investigation into the ability of pupils.

However wholesome we may regard the reaction of recent years against the "examination," we must recognize that, as the "capstone of the review

[1] Emerson E. White, "School Management," New York, 1893, p. 158.

[2] *Op. cit.*, p. 67.

[3] "School Management," p. 177.

[4] "Classroom Management," p. 249.

process," it must be retained. Manifestly, however, certain principles must govern its use: —

1. Tests must be regarded as a means to an end, and not be mistaken for the end itself. "A school examination is a good servant, but a bad master." [1]

2. Teachers and pupils must not work solely or even primarily for results on examinations, both because of the superficiality of the work thus encouraged and because of the fret and worry that are produced in the minds of teacher and pupils.

3. Every test should be given with some definite aim or purpose in view, and this usually should be constructive in motive.

4. As a logical consequence of its purposeful character, the results of the test should be analyzed, careful generalizations drawn, and these conclusions acted upon for the good of the pupils.

5. There should be a judicious use of both oral and written tests. The written is so commonly the prevailing form that it is unnecessary here to argue for it. The oral test, according to Dr. Dutton,[2] has the following advantages over the written test: — (1) It gives the teacher power and skill in ques-

[1] J. Baldwin, "The Art of School Management," New York, 1891, p. 359.

[2] "School Management," p. 177.

tioning. (2) The teacher discovers which pupils have ready command. (3) It relieves the pupils of the ceaseless use of the pen. (4) It calls for a higher degree of promptitude on the part of the pupil. (5) The teacher's work is done when the exercise is finished.

6. Tests should be varied in their character as to the kind of ability tested. Particularly should there be a due proportion of the three kinds: (*a*) habit tests, (*b*) memory tests, (*c*) judgment tests. A brief consideration of each of these three follows: —

Exception may be taken to this arbitrary classification, but as we are considering the question from the administrative standpoint and aim at broad and practical distinctions, no extended defense will be offered.

The process of education consists in the acquisition of habits and judgments.[1] These two functions are sufficiently distinct to necessitate separate "testing."

(*a*) *The Habit Test.*

Doing and *Making* are the two forms of "testable" habits. Reading is a habit[2] — yielding of itself no

[1] Cf. Bagley, "Educative Process," p. 115 *et seq.*

[2] Meaning that phase of reading which deals with learning to read and not that phase which means reading to learn. "In short, reading may signify a mastery of symbols or a study of literature." — CHAS. A. and FRANK M. MCMURRY, "The Method of the Recitation," New York, 1903, p. 310.

tangible product. It is true that in acquiring it the pupil must have made many psychologic judgments; but in testing a pupil's ability to read, we test something which, if it is not already a matter of habit, must become such before the pupil has command of this chief tool of his mental workshop. If he has to perform a conscious judging anew at every word he sees on the printed page, he has not yet learned to read in any practical sense. Gymnastics and singing are other forms of the Doing habit.

The testing of this class of habits presents certain difficulties arising from the fact that there is no permanent product. Two are obvious: much time is consumed in formally hearing each pupil read or sing a selection, or observing him go through a gymnastic exercise; and there is apt to be wide variation in the criteria employed by different teachers, and even by the same teacher at different times, in determining the "rating" of the pupil's work. On the other hand, there is an advantage in the teacher's being able to get, as it were, a "bird's-eye" view of the class as a whole, against which the shortcomings of the individual stand out in relief.

Writing (and written spelling), and the working elements of drawing, sewing, and constructive work,

are habits of the Making order, yielding a tangible product which may be filed for future reference. As in the Doing habits, a simple form of judging enters into their acquisition, but once acquired the resulting products come largely as a matter of habit — "largely," because it is clear that in the advanced work of drawing and construction there is much "judgment" to be tested. But no pupil has learned to write or to draw who is obliged to consider, in a judging attitude, each letter of the alphabet as he forms it, or every stroke of his pencil as he makes a line.

Before proceeding to the other forms of test we must justify the distinction between the Memory and the Judgment tests.

Judgments are the results of the process of judging; and the process and the product must be sharply distinguished. A judgment is a judgment, whoever may have performed the judging which produced it. You may judge and thus arrive at a judgment; I may accept the judgment without any judging. For instance, I may be curious as to the name of the tree before me. I might go through the various stages of judging, consulting botanical classifications, etc.; instead, I ask you, for I know you have made many judgments of this sort. You tell me that it is an aspen. My curiosity is satisfied. I have

acquired the judgment: This tree is an aspen. The only judging I have done has been incidental: I have correctly judged that I can accept your statement with confidence; I may have erred in not realizing that had I done the judging myself I should probably retain the judgment longer than I shall by taking it ready-made — nevertheless, I have the judgment and I got it without judging.

"It is necessary to note a further distinction. A judgment may be either a *fact* or a *principle:* a fact is the statement of a relation between particular units, a principle is the "statement of a relation that is constant in a number of separate facts";[1] a fact is special, a principle is general.

The act of judging, then, may be either the determining of a statement of fact[2] or the working over of facts until a common relation is discovered and expressed as a generalization. For instance, to revert to the former illustration, having learned that this tree is an aspen, I am told that that other tree is an aspen, and a third, and a fourth, and so on, until I know a score of particular aspen trees. By careful observation I discover that all these have a common peculiarity in the shape of leaf and stem. From this I reach the generalization: Trees having round leaves and long stems flattened in planes perpendicular to each other, are aspens. In this case I have done my own

[1] Bagley, "Educative Process," p. 166. Also, "the terms 'generalization,' 'law,' and 'principle' may be looked upon as synonymous."

[2] In which we may include for present purposes the application of generalizations to particulars, *i.e.* deduction.

judging; but you might, as before, have given me this judgment as the result of your own judging. I then would have been in possession of the same judgment, but would not have had the exercise in judging. Thus judging may be concerned with either generalized or particularized judgments, with principles or with facts.

In school work, the amount of judging which the pupil exercises in the acquisition of judgments depends largely upon the "method" of his teacher. She, with her technical skill, will sometimes place before him ready-made judgments and force his acquisition of them, and at other times compel him of his own effort to reach judgments for himself.[1] In either case he *learns* a judgment: to recall the judgment at some future time is presumably[2] an act of memory; to arrive at a judgment *de novo* is an act of judging. The ability to perform each of these acts can be, and in the interest of good results should be, tested independently.

[1] "We may, then, make (1) our boy observe for himself by showing him what to look for and how to look for it; or we may (2) lead him to see causal connection between two facts or sets of facts; or we may (3) tell him. To tell him is often, not the shortest way only, but also the best way; but how much of one or another procedure is to be used must be determined by the teacher's tact and perspicacity." — BARNETT, *op. cit.*, p. 13.

[2] "Presumably," because in a memory test a pupil might fail to remember a judgment and yet be able to recall it by repeating the process of judging by which originally he reached the judgment in question.

Testing Memory is to test the extent of the pupil's *fund* of judgments; testing Judgment is to test his *ability* to judge.[1] Memory tests concern the *products* of judging; Judgment tests concern the *processes* of judging.

(*b*) *The Memory Test.*

Of the several forms of activity which the child is in school to exercise, one of the simplest is the memorizing of facts and generalizations. This form lends itself most readily to a test of results. Has the pupil learned, with a sufficient degree of surety, the facts, isolated or related, which it is his business to have acquired? This is the easiest question to answer by test, and it is well to settle it before testing the ability to judge, which in many respects is of higher grade than the ability to memorize.

[1] ". . . we may advert to the two different intellectual energies, called, respectively, Memory and Judgment. These are in every way distinct, and in passing from the one to the other there is a real, and not merely apparent, transition. Memory is nearly identical with the Retentive, Adhesive, or Plastic faculty, which I have assumed to be perhaps the most costly employment of the powers of the mind and brain. Judgment again may be simply an exercise of Discrimination; it may also involve Similarity and Identification; it may further contain a Constructive operation. It is the aspect of our intellectual power that turns to account our existing impressions, as contrasted with the power that adds to our accumulated stores." — ALEXANDER BAIN, "Education as a Science," New York, 1892, p. 48.

It is sometimes urged in criticism that any test of this kind can be only partial, that "the examination shows only whether the specific questions asked have been correctly answered, and not whether other questions equally important might or might not have been answered." [1] Yet if the particular questions are carefully selected, the law of averages operates so that the percentage of correct answers to those questions sufficiently approximates the percentage of correct answers which would result were the pupils asked all the possible questions on the subject under review.

By way of experiment, spelling was selected as the subject which best lends itself to mathematical consideration, and a special exercise was taken in classes of the 5B–8A grades. In each case the teacher compiled a list of one hundred words of ordinary difficulty, the spelling of which, to the best of her knowledge, the pupils had not theretofore formally studied. She assigned ten of these hundred to the class for study on each of ten consecutive school days. At the beginning of the eleventh day, ten words — one from each block of ten — were given as a spelling test; later in the morning another ten, similarly selected, were given; and in the afternoon the entire hundred words were given. The results were: —

[1] Gilbert, *op. cit.*, p. 68.

	First Ten	Second Ten	Mean	Entire Hundred
5B	98.0	98.0	98.0	96.1
6A	85.0	85.0	85.0	92.0
6B	95.2	97.5	96.5	95.0
7A	88.0	94.7	91.4	92.0
7B	95.0	95.0	95.0	96.0
8A	98.4	97.5	98.0	97.6

Allowing for the impossibility of securing exactly the same conditions for each of the three tests, the results on the selected group and on the entire hundred are sufficiently in accord to justify the practice of using the former as a substitute and equivalent for the latter.

The study of every subject in the curriculum involves, at some stage at least, the memorizing of certain facts or generalizations. It is quite true that in certain subjects, notably the sciences, most of the "judgments" will not be given outright to the pupils, but will be developed by them through the guiding genius of the teacher. But because some judgments are the product of the pupil's own judging is no reason why the judging exercise should be accepted as a substitute for the pupil's mastery of the resulting judgments. The most skilful teaching can never relieve the pupil from the obligation of acquiring a fund of judgments to be drawn upon in the constant

emergencies of life, most of which allow no time for the making of those judgments afresh.

(*c*) *The Judgment Test.*

We may test the pupil in his ability not only to remember or to recall those judgments which have been previously presented or worked out, but also to exercise the judging function, which we do by requiring him to make judgments *de novo*. Every subject, under good teaching, requires occasional, if not frequent, development of judgments by the pupils themselves. The necessity for testing this function and noting the advance of pupils therein is not, as a rule, adequately recognized. It is not to be accepted, it is true, as a substitute for either of the other two forms of tests, but, particularly in grades above the third, should be used regularly and with increasing frequency.

The mere repetition, by memory, on the part of the pupil, of a judging exercise, does not test his judgment. For example, he may have taken his part in the class in the development of the solution of a particular problem in mathematics. Later, in a test, given that same problem, he may respond creditably without in any measure indicating his ability to develop the solution, but merely his ability to ***remember*** the successive steps in the solution.

Ordinarily, in arithmetic, the development of rules and the solution of problems; in grammar, the development of rules of syntax and their application to new sentences; in the content subjects, the making of new inferences, — all are judgment tests. The same lesson, or topic, or series of lessons, usually permits of both memory and judgment test; in such cases the results of each kind of test may be quite at variance — which may or may not have a special significance.

The following suggestive question papers[1] are submitted to indicate the difference between a memory test and a judgment test, in each case upon the same lesson or series of lessons. It is hardly necessary to add that a single examination may, and usually should, include both kinds of questions.

1. "THE COURTSHIP OF MILES STANDISH." GRADE SEVEN A

(a) *Memory*

(1) Who was Miles Standish?

(2) Why had the Pilgrims come to this country?

(3) In what relation did John Alden stand to Miles Standish?

[1] For valuable assistance in the composition of these papers the writer is indebted to Miss Gertrude A. Price, Miss Grace L. Dunning, Miss Ella J. Trappan, Miss Mabel F. Jones, and Miss Lucy E. Stone, of Public School No. 85, Brooklyn, New York.

(4) Whom did Miles Standish love?

(5) Who else loved her?

(6) What errand did Miles Standish ask John Alden to perform for him?

(7) Why did not Miles Standish do this errand himself?

(8) Why did John Alden go?

(9) How did John Alden deliver his message?

(10) What did Priscilla say?

(b) *Judgment*

(1) In what way were St. Gregory and his monk, St. Augustine, like Miles Standish and John Alden?

(2) How could Miles Standish be a "shield" and a "weapon"?

(3) What is the meaning of

"Turned o'er the well-worn leaves, where thumb marks thick on the margin,
Like the trample of feet, proclaimed the battle was hottest."

If you have any books in this condition, name them and the parts answering to the above description.

(4) How could Priscilla throw away John Alden's heart?

(5) Why should Priscilla mention the fact that religion was dear to her?

(6) Why did not John Alden deliver his message at first in the beautiful language that Miles Standish expected he would?

(7) Why did he talk so eloquently later on?

(8) How can a pen give away a secret?

(9) Why, do you think, did John Alden not suspect Miles Standish's love for Priscilla before he was asked to go on the errand?

(10) Why did Miles Standish talk so much about himself as a *soldier* before asking John Alden to go to Priscilla?

2. ENGLISH HISTORY. GRADE SEVEN B

(a) *Memory*

(1) What was the longest time during which Charles I. reigned without a parliament, and what was his excuse for doing so?

(2) Name two ways in which Charles obtained money in this period.

(3) Who invented the plan called "thorough," and what was its aim?

(4) Over what tribunal did Archbishop Laud preside?

(5) For what offense did this tribunal impose fines?

(6) How did this affect the Puritans?

(7) What was John Winthrop's connection with these conditions and what did he do as a leader?

(8) What was meant by "ship money"? Why did the people object to paying it?

(9) How did John Hampden figure in this opposition?

(10) What American settlement was a refuge for Roman Catholics, and who was its leader?

(11) Who was John Endicott and with what event was he connected?

(b) *Judgment.* (With text-books)

(1) We hear the Standard Oil spoken of as a monopoly. What does this mean?

(2) How did the expression "star chamber" originate?

(3) Why could Hampden and Cromwell be called "strong and resolute"?

(4) What is meant by "They were branded with red-hot irons"?

(5) How could a sovereign "call" upon a "seaport"?

(6) We pay in this country for the maintenance of an army and navy. Why did the English people in the time of Charles make such a fuss about doing the same thing?

(7) Are any of our servants to-day judges? What does it mean when it says "All these judges were servants"?

(8) "Brilliant" means "sparkling." What is meant by a "brilliant reign"? Do you believe in the "divine right of kings," and why?

(9) What illegal tax do we pay to-day?

(10) Write a brief summary of the events of the reign of Queen Anne.

3. AMERICAN HISTORY. GRADE EIGHT A

(a) *Memory*

(1) Name four French explorers. Name one important event in the life of each.

(2) What two things attracted the French to America?

(3) By whose discovery and explorations did France lay claim to Louisiana and land bordering the Mississippi?

(4) What land was included in "New France"?

(5) What was the most important provision of the charter granted by King James?

(6) Name three governors of Virginia.

(7) Give the date and the name of the first Virginia settlement.

(8) Of what did the new government consist after the reforms of 1619?

(9) When was slavery introduced into Virginia?

(10) What other kind of servants did the people have besides negro slaves?

(b) *Judgment.* (With text-books)

(1) Why is Champlain called the "Father of New France?"

(2) What is the usual meaning of "handful"? What does it mean in "This battle took place when only a handful of Englishmen were at Jamestown"?

(3) Explain: "La Salle planted the French arms at the mouth of the Mississippi."

(4) What is the meaning of the word *gentleman* on p. 27, par. 21 (Gordy)? Can a person who works hard with his hands be a gentleman? Why?

(5) During the reign of which of Virginia's governors would you rather have been living in Virginia? Why?

(6) Which do you think had more advantages as a place for settlement, Massachusetts or Virginia? Why?

(7) Why did the Virginians prefer having slaves to having servants as we have them to-day?

4. GEOGRAPHY. GRADE EIGHT A

(a) *Memory*

(1) Describe Africa as to its location in zones, the character of its coast line, the location and extent of its mountain ranges, and the chief characteristics of its river systems.

(2) Describe the feeding of the Nile, the character of its upper and lower courses, and name three kinds of ruins peculiar to the section.

(3) Name the four largest lakes of Africa. Describe their general size, source of water supply, and use to commerce.

(4) Name two animal products and two mineral products in the output of which Africa excels the world.

(5) What effect have the trade winds on northern Africa? Account for the Desert of Kalahari. Why does the northern slope of the Atlas Mountains get plentiful rainfall?

(6) What is the common peculiarity of the ownership of the African countries? What has England done for Egypt?

(7) How does Africa rank among the continents in development of resources, commerce, progress? What section has least chance for advancement? In what sections is there most progress?

(8) Locate three of these cities: Johannesburg, Cape Town, Alexandria, Cairo, Khartoum. Tell for what each of the other two is noted.

(b) *Judgment*

(1) Give several reasons why Africa has been explored and settled so much later than either North or South America.

(2) "The Nile River, after flowing through thousands of miles of desert region, makes Upper Egypt one of the most fertile sections of the world." Explain how this is possible. What section of Africa would you prefer to visit, and why?

(3) Victoria Nyanza and Lake Superior are of about the same size. Give some reasons why one is of greater commercial importance than the other.

(4) How do you think the price of diamonds is affected by South Africa's control of ninety per cent of the world's output of diamonds? Why?

(5) Why is not a large part of northern South America a desert like northern Africa? If the mountains of South Africa lay in the direction of the Atlas Mountains, what difference, if any, would it make in the climate of South Africa? Give your reasons for your preference, if you were to choose between the two slopes of the Atlas Mountains for a home.

(6) Why has the United States less opportunity for trade with Africa than have most of the countries of Europe? Egypt recently raised the cry, Egypt for Egyptians. What do they mean, and why are you for or against the demand?

(7) Give two possible interpretations of Stanley's

title, In Darkest Africa. Examine a map of Africa for the location of the principal railroads. Account for their distribution.

(8) Explain why the number of large cities in Africa should differ from that of Europe. Give three reasons, from its location, for the development of Alexandria into a city of importance.

5. HISTORY. GRADE EIGHT B

(a) *Memory*

(1) What was the object of the Annapolis convention? What was accomplished by it?

(2) For what purpose were the thirteen states asked to send delegates to Philadelphia in 1787? When was the Constitution adopted?

(3) What was Hamilton's plan for establishing the credit of the new government? Give some of his reasons for what he wished to do.

(4) What was the cause of the Whisky Rebellion? Its result?

(5) Give an account of our relations with France during Washington's administration.

(6) Write a short paragraph on Jay's treaty.

(7) What president succeeded Washington? To what party did he belong? For what great principle did his party stand?

(b) *Judgment*

(1) What political reason was there in Washington's day for making communication easy between people

living west of the Alleghanies and those living east of those mountains?

(2) In the Constitutional Convention, why did the small States insist upon equal representation among the States?

(3) What is meant by "The price of assumption was the location of the national capital on the Potomac"?

(4) What double purpose had Hamilton in recommending that Congress pay the debts contracted by the States during the Revolution?

(5) Mr. Fiske says of the elastic clause, "It is always important to know how far it will do to stretch it." In what way could it be stretched too far?

(6) Why does a direct tax meet with more opposition than an indirect one? Cite some historical instances that would seem to prove that the direct tax is the more unpopular.

(7) In what way did the Whisky Rebellion show that the new government was stronger than the old?

The principal's relation to tests and examinations is twofold: he must supervise their use by teachers, and he will himself use them as a means of supervision.

1. As used by the teacher, tests are of value both for herself and for her pupils.

(*a*) *For the teacher.*

(1) It gives her an important measure of the

response of the individual pupils to the requirements of the school, one which is somewhat more tangible and exact than the pupils' day-by-day activity.

(2) The test may serve as a factor in helping the teacher properly to rate the pupils, though it will be but one of several factors. (See rating of pupils, p. 195.)

(3) Perhaps the chief value of the test is that it shows the teacher the quality of her own teaching. The wise teacher will not always charge up against her pupils their poor showing on a test, but will frequently review her own method, questioning whether it is not that which may be held responsible for the delinquencies of the pupils.

(*b*) *For the pupils.*

(4) They have a disciplinary value in showing the pupils exactly what they know and what they do not know, and in forcing upon them the idea that the responsibility for results is fixed upon them and that they are to be held to account.

(5) They may be used occasionally to encourage pupils who are disheartened over difficult work, by giving them a simple test to remind them that they have already accomplished something, and hence may justly be expected to accomplish yet more.

(6) Tests help to fasten important topics. The emphasis which a topic receives when it is made the subject of a test-question usually makes a lasting impression upon the pupil's mind, whether he answered the particular question successfully or not.[1]

(7) Tests may be made a means of valuable training along lines outside the subject-matter of the test.

(*a*) To analyze properly the meaning of an examination question and to state clearly the answer thereto are both excellent drills in the use of language. Indeed, much of the difficulty pupils have in solving problems in mathematics, for instance, comes from a failure to understand the meaning of the question — lack of ability to interpret the English language.

(*b*) A written examination demands from the pupil

[1] "The virtue of the examination lies, then, in its power to *force* strenuous mental effort to the task of organizing a large body of facts and principles into a coherent system.

". . . if organization is the most important and the most economical factor in promoting efficient recall — then the examination is a legitimate means to a final end, and probably the most effective instrument that is at the command of the school for this purpose." — BAGLEY, "Educative Process," p. 334.

careful though incidental attention to matters of penmanship, arrangement, form, etc.

(*c*) A written examination calls for the exercise of good judgment on the part of the pupil in the apportionment of his time to different questions and determining the extent to which he should answer each.

(*d*) Pupils, by reading and rating one another's written test papers, as they should occasionally, get valuable training in judgment and in the finer qualities of courtesy and tact.

2. In making use of the test himself the principal may have at least three different motives: —

(1) To test the teaching. When this is the aim, he must be sure that his test is a "fair" one. His right to give an examination at any time to any class on any subject is not to be questioned, but if he is to use the results in his estimate of a teacher's ability, he must limit his questions to those which cover the ground taught by the teacher in the given period.

For instance, the principal might give an examination in trigonometry to a fifth-year class. He might have very good pedagogic or administrative reasons for doing this; and so long as he merely gave the examination and offered

no criticism of the teacher because her pupils did not "pass" it, she would have no cause for complaint, although no doubt she would appreciate it if the principal explained what he was after. On the other hand, if the principal, on account of the results of such an examination, charged the teacher with doing poor work, she would certainly have cause to protest. When the principal is examining in order to test the teacher, it should be understood that such is his purpose; and his teachers should be trained to point out to him any unfairness, on this basis, of the questions he asks.

(2) To "take stock." This at times is as important for the school administrator as for the merchant. A good way to ascertain the relative condition of the classes from grade to grade is to give simple tests in the various subjects, using the same questions in every grade throughout each three or four years of the course. The tabulated results by grades and by classes will then show with fair accuracy the location of the weak spots, and consequently the places at which the maximum of corrective teaching and managing must be applied.

Results of tests in each class may be entered on blank forms, such as the following: —

TEST IN----------

DATE----------190--- CLASS----------

NUMBER OF PUPILS IN ATTENDANCE----------

QUESTION NUMBER	PUPILS CORRECT	% OF PUPILS CORRECT
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		
11		
12		
TOTAL:		

TEACHER

The results for groups of classes can then be tabulated thus: —

	% CORRECT												
CLASS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	TOTAL
8BB													
8BG													
8AB													
8AM													
8AG													
7BB													
7BM													
7BG													

(3) To settle appeals at promotion. It is well for the principal to have documentary support for his final decision as to the promotion or non-promotion of a pupil, even though the examination may not have been the controlling or even the chief factor in determining his decision.

A few additional principles applicable to examinations, whatever their purpose, are noted: —

1. State questions as clearly and as briefly as the subject permits.

2. Vary the form of questions from time to time. Avoid stereotyped forms, to meet which teachers and pupils are tempted to waste time and effort.

3. It is wise frequently to allow optional questions, optional either by choice of the teacher or of the pupils.

4. A question paper should be so worded as to permit of easy reading of the answers thereto. A given set of questions may be so loosely arranged and so vaguely expressed as to necessitate an immense amount of labor by the teacher in reading the answer papers; while by the exercise of a few minutes' care the same questions can be organized into such form as will save the corrector sixty or seventy per cent of her time and energy.

5. Examinations should usually come unheralded.

6. Extreme care must be exercised in drawing conclusions from the results of any given examination or set of tests. Hasty generalization may work injustice toward some teacher or class of pupils; all factors that enter into the results in any case should be diligently sought after and accurately taken into account.

CHAPTER IX

THE PRINCIPAL AND THE PUPILS' MORAL DEVELOPMENT

ALTHOUGH in any strict classification the four topics cannot be considered as coördinate, the moral development of the pupils and the principal's relation thereto will be discussed under the subheads: (1) Discipline, (2) Attendance and Punctuality, (3) Habits and Ideals, (4) School Spirit.

1. Discipline

This is probably the most perplexing problem that confronts the principal. In his successful experience as a class teacher, which it is here assumed that the principal has had, he has learned that "discipline" should not be "separate from the work of the school and made a particular feature," [1] and he has learned and applied the other important principles underlying the proper government of a class. But as principal he is in command in a

[1] Gilbert, *op. cit.*, p. 23.

broader field, and finds among his lieutenants a large proportion who are untrained in the practical management of their classes. As principal he must secure throughout many classes a rational system of class government, and throughout the school as a whole a unified system of school government; and this he must develop and maintain while a varying proportion of his teachers are in that stage of their experience when their presence impairs rather than strengthens his plans. In studying the practical problem from the office of the principal, let us first consider five general propositions: —

1. "Discipline" in a school is a natural, to-be-expected, and ever-present problem. The discipline of a school may, and should, under ordinary conditions, improve from year to year; but as the work of the school means a *continuous* process of admitting to the school register hundreds of pupils in their infancy and discharging them in their youth, just so will the problem of discipline be a *continuous* one. The corollary to this proposition is: Be not discouraged. The principal, after five years in a school, finding that he is expending time and energy on the same old disciplinary problems, is prone to feel disheartened; but he must not forget that while

the problems are much the same, the personnel of the subjects is different — he is treating a new generation of pupils. His methods of treatment, it is to be hoped, are constantly improving; but he is dealing all the while with the same human nature, the same child nature.

2. The principal must possess some philosophy of discipline: it may be a borrowed philosophy, or it may be the development of his own thought, the outgrowth of his own experience. But he must have *some* well-grounded collection of fundamental principles to guide him in his treatment of the general problem and to serve as the background against which he will set each individual "case" of discipline as it comes before him.

The following philosophy of discipline is sketched, merely by way of suggestion, and without any thought that it is novel, complete, or final.

"Discipline" of a class or other group of pupils is equal to the sum of the "disciplines" of the individual pupils.[1]

[1] "Society is made up of individuals; all that is done in society is done by the combined actions of individuals; and therefore, in individual actions only can be found the solutions of social phenomena. But the actions of individuals depend on the laws of their natures. . . ." — HERBERT SPENCER, "Education: Intellectual, Moral, and Physical," New York, 1907, p. 58.

If every pupil in the school were properly and completely disciplined, the school would be in perfect discipline. Discipline for the individual is not merely a school problem; it is a life problem. Indeed, the content of the word might be extended to indicate the end and aim of all education.

All sciences are interdependent. Pedagogy as a science is chiefly dependent upon the sciences of sociology, biology, and psychology; others of course make material contributions. The most significant generalization common to these three sciences is the doctrine of evolution: —

1. *In Sociology.* — Civilization (the present state of discipline of society) came late in the historic view of the human race. Even within the period of civilization, we see that Despotism gives place *slowly* to Democracy; government from without gives place *slowly* to government from within. The school — the class — is a society; and the growth in the character of the discipline of a class is a matter of time. The class, as One A, corresponds to the infancy of the civilized race, and is governed by absolutism; the same class, become Eight B, corresponds to the maturity of the race, and is governed as a democracy. There is danger in giving a society in its infancy self-government for which it has not developed the capacity; there is equal danger in restraining a society by absolutism when it has reached a maturity that qualifies it for democracy. Likewise, it is dangerous to force self-government upon a One A class and equally dangerous to withhold it from an Eight B class.

2. *In Biology.* — Again, the law of evolution. Keeping within the limits of the subdivision, human physiology, that phase of the subject is merely to be noted in passing, which concerns the relation of ventilation, posture, fatigue, etc., to discipline. In the physical life of the individual, at least during his school career, the most important stage is Adolescence. In the elementary school we deal with pupils on both sides of the crisis of adolescence, and throughout a considerable part of the period. In school administration we must give due consideration to this fact.

3. *In Psychology.* — Again, evolution. Here we see adolescence as a *mental* phase, characterized by the efflorescence of activities previously dormant, as, for example, the religious sentiment. By a very rough classification it may be said that we deal with pupils in school years 1–3, in their infancy; in 4–6, in pre-adolescence; in 7–8, in adolescence. Of the three stages the second is the most difficult to treat. The infant is an infant and is to be treated as such; as a youth he is to be treated as a youth; but at the critical stage of pre-adolescence, he himself knows not whether he is child or youth, feels, but cannot analyze, the strife within between the two conditions, and taxes the skill of the most experienced of teachers.

Whatever the other sciences involved, discipline is essentially a concern of psychology. Let us look into it from this view point.

Reduced to its lowest terms, discipline, in its popular

school sense, means that process which leads the individual to do the right thing.[1] Psychologically, discipline is a threefold matter of intellect, of feeling, and of will. (I am not unmindful that psychology has long since dropped the use of these terms to indicate separate and distinct faculties of the mind; but the words must be retained for a while, I suspect, as a convenient terminology to apply to the most notable phases of consciousness.) Formal education has quite uniformly overtrained, and is yet overtraining, intellect. But we should train the whole Mind, not merely one of its phases, intellect.

We *do* right only when three conditions are satisfied: (1) we *know* what the particular right is; (2) we *feel* that we *ought* to do the right in any case; and (3) we *will* to do the particular right. No two of these phases will suffice: (1) one may have a religious fervor for right doing and an iron will, but if he cannot decide the purely *intellectual* question as to what the right is in the particular case, he will fail to do the right in that case; (2) one may know clearly what the right in a particular matter is, have the will to do anything he sets out to do, and yet lack the *feeling*, the compelling motive, as, for instance, the sense of duty, and thus fail to do the right in the particular case; or (3) one may both know clearly and feel fervently as to a particular right conduct, and yet lack the

[1] "The word *discipline* implies a mechanizing process — the formation of an habitual reaction that shall function with little or no effort of attention after it has once been firmly established." — BAGLEY, "Educative Process," p. 214.

necessary *will*-power, and again fail to do the particular right.

How shall we *train* intellect, feeling, will? We have pretty thoroughly learned the method of intellect training. "Exercise strengthens faculty" is still the old reliable rule; and it is in reality the law of training of all kinds. We have long recognized the necessity of *drill* of intellect: we train memory by memorizing; we train judgment by judging; we train reason by reasoning, etc.[1] The same principle must be applied to feeling and will. Modern pedagogy, it is true, has developed many corollaries to this fundamental law of drill, but it is doubtful if there is any successful "method" which does not stand upon this foundation principle. How then shall we train for discipline?

1. *Train Intellect.* — The child must *know* what is the right thing. Be sure that he does know before you expect him to do. Many "cases" of discipline originate in innocent ignorance on the part of the pupil as to what is the right in a particular condition. Be sure that the teacher *knows* what is right for the pupils to do. Be sure that she distinguishes between "conventions" and "laws of right."[2] Be sure, especially in the higher grades, that she is not overemphasizing mere school conventions and

[1] These statements may be taken in a large or in a limited sense, according to whether one believes or disbelieves in the possibility of "generalized" habits. In either case the fundamental principle holds.

[2] Cf. Gilbert, *op. cit.*, p. 24.

leading pupils to a belief that they are more important than the vital forms of righteousness. She must have a correct, or at least a sane, definition of "order," remembering that order, after all, is but a means, not an end, though somewhere along the line it may rightly enough be made an end for the sake of training. "Whispering," for example, as Dr. Balliet aptly puts it, "is not a disease, but a symptom."

But the knowledge of right and wrong is a *growth*. In infancy the pupil knows the right because he is told that it is right, or else he appears to know the right because he has had no experience with the wrong. Although the teacher will not hold before the pupils and demand from them compliance with *false* conventions, yet in dealing with pupils in the stage of infancy she will not attempt to have them distinguish between conventions and moral laws. The child must be taught, with equal insistence, that he must not steal and that he must not put his knife into his mouth at meals; for, while one is a matter of morals and the other a matter of manners, it would be a violation of good pedagogy to emphasize this distinction with him, or in any way to get into a discussion as to the "rightness" of the acts. Broadly considered, to steal, to lie, to kill, may be justifiable, that is, under certain circumstances, right; at any rate, adults may with comparative safety discuss the question as to whether they are ever right or not. But the child must be taught emphatically, unequivocally, that these things are wrong — they are wrong because you tell him so. In due

time he will reach adolescence and maturity, gain his intellectual freedom, and take his turn at arguing metaphysical questions.[1]

Through all the subjects of the curriculum the pupil may be led to see what is and has been for ages considered *right* in the various and detailed relationships of life. In "The Moral Instruction of Children" Dr. Adler shows[2] how the teaching of science, history, literature, etc., can develop the knowledge of right. As he matures, the pupil may be taught to reason on the wisdom of these *rights*. Probably no better rule can be given him than the old, old, golden one of considering questions from the standpoint of the "other fellow."

2. *Train Feeling*. — The ultimate aim is that the sentiment of Duty shall become a sense of Right for Right's sake, but this condition is the climax, reached only after years of growth. This sense of duty must come slowly through years of transition from the lowest motives upward, through an ascending series of feelings from infancy to adolescence, — fear, respect, love, ambition, are some of the milestones on the road to the terminal Sense of Duty.[3] The fundamental proposition is that the child

[1] "The first thing the child has to learn about this matter is, that lying is unprofitable, — afterwards that it is against the peace and dignity of the universe." — OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES, "The Autocrat of the Breakfast-Table," Boston, p. 117.

[2] P. 27 *et seq.*

[3] ". . . probably not until the onset of adolescence, — the abstract ideals of honor, duty, and obedience, functioning in con-

must do right. It is only by *doing* right that he is trained to do right. If, at the age of four, he will do right through a dependable and sustained sense of duty, then that should be his motive. But if, as is actually the case, he can have no such lofty sentiment, then he must do the right because of some feeling lower in the scale, but, he *must* do right. If fear is the only motive that reaches him, then fear must operate; soon, through constant practice in doing right, fear will yield to something higher, love perhaps, or ambition, and thus in time will there be a growth to the climax.

There are many opportunities in the class room for training feeling. Like intellect, it may be trained without in every case passing from the feeling phase to the willing; that is, without the particular act of *doing* following the exercise in knowing and feeling. Throughout the training the teacher must constantly and consistently emphasize the crime, and not the criminal. It is not that the murderer is a bad man, but that he committed a bad deed. It is not that John is a bad boy, but that he did a wrong thing. We hate the wrong, but we love the child. Many a teacher forgets this principle and treats the misdeeds of pupils as personal matters, affronts directed against her personally. The pupil's faults are to be regarded not as against the teacher, but as against himself or against law and society. The pupil, it is true, may have the personal feeling, but

ceptual judgments, may come to dominate his conduct." — BAGLEY, "Educative Process," p. 189.

as adolescence approaches, his growth should come as the result of the teacher's refusal to accept it in this spirit and her consistent treatment of his offenses as impersonalities.

3. *Train Will.* — This "I *will* do right" is also a matter of growth and the result of drill. There are many more class-room opportunities to train will than the average teacher appreciates. Before the pupil can be expected to exercise even a little self-control in big things, he must first be taught to exercise large control in little things. He must be taught to will in the little and less important matters, first. Most teachers wait to discipline the will until the pupil reaches some critical and important matter; then they cannot afford to disregard his failure. Whereas if the same pupil had been trained to will sufficiently to meet minor matters of gradually increasing strain, he would have reached the major matter with a will prepared to meet it.

To summarize: discipline is a matter of *growth;* we must not expect too much too soon;[1] we must sympathize

[1] "Do not expect from a child any great amount of moral goodness . . . there remains to be recognized the truth that there is a *moral precocity* which is also detrimental. Our higher moral faculties, like our higher intellectual ones, are comparatively complex. By consequence they are both comparatively late in their evolution." — HERBERT SPENCER, "Education," New York, 1907, p. 213.

"It is very singular that we recognize all the bodily defects that unfit a man for military service, and all the intellectual ones that limit his range of thought, but always talk at him as if all his moral powers were perfect." — OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES, "Elsie Venner," Boston, p. 226.

with failure, for we ourselves have failed; we must respect physical and psychological adolescence; we must *train* for discipline, intellect so that it shall *know* the right, *feeling* so that it shall come instinctively to prefer right to wrong, and *will* so that it shall, by force of habit, act promptly in accordance with the dictates of trained intellect and feeling.

Whatever the detail of his philosophy, the principal can undoubtedly accede to the proposition that discipline is a matter of growth from *implicit* to *rational* obedience, and agree with Dr. Bagley that "as far as the educative process is concerned, the child is an entirely different being at different levels of his growth." [1]

3. Throughout all the grades of the school the pupils must feel the ultimate authority of the principal as the administrator of the law. This does not mean at all that the principal will flaunt his authority or even refer to it; but since it is true that the "personality of the principal of the school is the chief factor of moral influence in it," [2] his influence for the right and against the wrong must be quiet, unobtrusive, but *sure*. "Teachers," says Payne,[3] "will secure that degree of discipline which they are sustained in enforcing, or which they are required to

[1] "Educative Process," p. 185. [2] Adler, *op. cit.*, p. 34.
[3] *Op. cit.*, p. 55.

enforce," and teachers and pupils alike must feel that the principal stands ever ready fearlessly to exercise to the limit his legal authority — whether that limit be corporal punishment, suspension, or expulsion — whenever occasion arises to demand such exercise.

4. A school "atmosphere" must be created, an "*esprit de corps*," a pride in the school and its honor. This is so important and extensive a factor that it is later discussed as a separate topic.

5. Preventive measures must be taken at every point, anticipating difficulty and thus forestalling its occurrence. A few, definite school regulations, general in their application, may be issued, so that certain classes of offenses may be clearly dealt with as violations of school rules.

There must be fixed upon the teachers constant responsibility for the conduct of pupils.

It would seem wise to carry out this policy to the extent of requiring that a teacher, upon leaving her pupils in the class room, should always notify the teacher of the nearest room of her temporary absence. The other teacher thereupon becomes responsible for the safety and conduct of the first teacher's pupils in addition to her own. This does not mean a too detailed supervision of these pupils, but it does mean, first, that the pupils realize, as a matter of

course, that they are answerable to some person in authority in the school, and, second, that in case of accident or other unfavorable occurrence, the public has the assurance that reasonable effort was made by the school administrators to prevent it.

Pupils must feel that they are at all times responsible to any and every teacher in the school. A pupil of a higher grade, for example, who shows any disrespect to a teacher of some other, and probably of a lower, grade, should, as a matter of logical consequence, be temporarily transferred to the room of that teacher until she is convinced that he is ready to act with proper respect and obedience.

The constant deference on the part of the principal to the administrative authority of the teacher, previously referred to (p. 85), is of immense value in maintaining the tone of the school. Some supervision of pupils leaving the class room individually during the session is a preventive of disorder (see p. 168). The attempts of the misbehaving pupils to thwart the coöperation of parents and teachers by clever forgery of signatures, etc., must be met by equal cleverness in their detection and punishment. Notwithstanding that the whole effort of the principal will constantly be in the direction of developing in

the pupils the performance of right for right's sake, and fostering the highest possible ideals as motives for good conduct, still, at all points, throughout the long process of development of these lofty ideals, the pupils must feel that wrong conduct will be detected and punished by those in authority, and that it is useless to try to "win out" along wrong lines.

An established and advertised policy in issuing letters of recommendation to pupils leaving school may be made to contribute toward their good conduct while they are yet in school. These letters may be in accordance with certain forms, copies of which are kept posted in the class rooms as a constant reminder to the pupils that the school record "counts" in this practical way.

The following set of forms is suggested: —

LETTERS OF RECOMMENDATION

ISSUED FROM

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100

FORM ONE:

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100, NEW YORK

----------190---

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

I take pleasure in recommending----------

----------, who has been a pupil of this school

for _____years. He (she) has been punctual and regular in attendance, industrious and successful in his (her) work, and courteous and well-behaved in every way. He (she) has been one of our very best pupils, and I am confident merits your most favorable consideration.

Respectfully,

TEACHER

I am very glad to indorse the above statements.

PRINCIPAL

FORM TWO:

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100, NEW YORK

----------190--

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

I take pleasure in recommending to your favorable notice,----------, who has been a pupil of this school for _____years. He (she) has been punctual and regular in attendance, industrious and well-behaved.

Respectfully,

TEACHER

I am glad to indorse the above statements.

PRINCIPAL

FORM THREE:

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100, NEW YORK

----------190--

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

I hereby recommend----------,
who has been a pupil of this school for _____years. He (she) has been passably punctual and regular in attendance and fairly wellbehaved and industrious.

Respectfully,

TEACHER

I indorse the above.

PRINCIPAL

FORM FOUR:

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100, NEW YORK

----------190--

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

I am asked to recommend----------,
who has been a pupil of this school for _____years. I regret that I can only say that he has been irregular in attendance and punctuality, poor in his work, and generally ill-behaved. Respectfully,

----
TEACHER

I am sorry that I must indorse the above.

PRINCIPAL

In case of graduates, the words "and who was graduated.....190..." are added to the first sentence in either ONE or TWO.

It will be noticed that all of the above are addressed to whom it may concern, and hence are designed to be given to pupils upon their own request. It is suggested that requests by mail from outsiders for information concerning pupils be replied to in the following form: —

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100
BROADWAY AND FULTON ST.

.....190..

M.....

.....

DEAR.....:

Replying to your favor of....., requesting information regarding..... ....., I beg to state that the following is a transcript of h.... record for the last .....years (..... terms) in which ..he was a pupil here:

TERM	GRADE	DAYS ABSENT	LESSONS	CONDUCT
Feb.–June, 190..				
Sep. '0 –Jan. '0				
Feb.–June, 190..				
Sep. '0 –Jan. '0				
Feb.–June, 190..				

Our record, further, shows that he was born_____
_____189__, admitted to this school,
_____1_____, and discharged,
(graduated)_____, 1____.

Respectfully,

_____
PRINCIPAL

To turn now to the more specific methods of discipline growing out of the foregoing principles, they will be considered under five heads.

1. New teachers must be trained to become good disciplinarians, in the better sense of that term. They need more encouragement and attention generally and more detailed instructions than do the experienced teachers, and in no respect more than in this matter of discipline. Such teachers need especial help in the details of class management. With so valuable a literature on this branch of the subject available, it is unnecessary here to give more than a synopsis of general principles. These the teacher must study until it becomes a matter of instinct or second nature for her to follow them in all her management.

First, the teacher must be led to appreciate the value in successful class management of normal physical environment for the pupils. She must

secure proper conditions: as to the room, its lighting, equipment, and adjustment; as to the air, its temperature and circulation; and as to the programme, its results upon the pupils as to fatigue and relaxation.

Secondly, the teacher must prepare her work in accordance with good method. Good, honest work gained from the pupils by well-prepared teaching is the certain preventive of disorder. At every period of class exercises, the more skillful the method employed by the teacher, the less opportunity is there for the pupils to develop habits of misconduct.

Thirdly, the teacher must remember that "the very atmosphere of the class room should be such as to encourage moral refinement; it should possess a sunny climate, so to speak, in which meanness and vulgarity cannot live." [1] But this atmosphere is more than a matter of physical environment and teaching method; it is primarily a matter of the teacher herself, and hence she must cultivate those personal qualities, the exercise of which will in great measure insure decorum and right behavior among her pupils. The most valuable of those personal qualities are: —

[1] Adler, *op. cit.*, p. 33.

(1) A calm and quiet manner. Quiet begets quiet. The teacher's self-control impresses pupils with the feeling that the teacher has inexhaustible reserve, so that it would be useless for them even to attempt to fathom it.

(2) Firmness and decision. These are in no way inconsistent with kindness and kindliness. Pupils respect the firm hand and the decisive will.

(3) Industry and energy. The spirit of work is contagious. The working teacher has working pupils.

(4) Cheerfulness. Work is not related to solemnity. A cheerful spirit will induce productive work where a "soured" disposition can at best get only time service.

(5) Sympathy. By this is meant the deep, true sympathy with boy- and girl-nature; no "molly-coddling," but a sincere desire to get the pupil's view point, to appreciate his problems, to get into his life, and to help him to help himself.

(6) Vigilance. The alertness of the eye, ear, and trained perceptions will permit little that occurs in the class to escape notice. On the other hand, good judgment as to what to recognize and refer to on the moment, and what to stow away in memory

to be drawn upon later if needed, must be ever present.

(7) Fairness and justness. The pupils forgive almost anything else in a teacher but unfairness or partiality.

(8) Order, system, and neatness. These virtues of the teacher reflect themselves in corresponding virtues in the pupils.

(9) Scholarship. This alone will not discipline a class, but the teacher who has it may with it command the respect of her pupils, and this respect is the best foundation upon which to rear the superstructure of class control.

For most new teachers, however, mere emphasis of these positive principles is insufficient and must be supplemented by continual cautions as to "what not to do." For instance, they must be warned against: —

(1) Not working pupils enough.[1] It is more difficult to do nothing than to do something; particu-

[1] "The amount of moral injury which results from constantly demanding less of children than they are capable of doing, and from keeping them on work that has grown stale to them, cannot be estimated." — GEORGE EDMUND MYERS, *Pedagogical Seminary*, vol. xiii, p. 448.

larly is it more difficult to make pupils do nothing than to make them do a specific something.

(2) Not maintaining good order *at the start.* The teacher passes over the early infractions with the thought, if she thinks about it at all, that she will discipline when there is something more serious to consider.

(3) Not having carefully planned system for the changing of activities. Good teaching method carries the class along nicely during the lessons, but the "between times" are bothersome. The teacher must learn both to merge one exercise into another so that there are few "breaks," and also to plan the inevitable breaks, *e.g.* the distribution of materials, the changing of seats, the dismissals, etc., so that they may be executed without confusion.

(4) Giving unnecessary directions and orders. It is far better to give one carefully thought out, rational order and see that it is obeyed by all, than to give half a dozen different and probably conflicting directions in the same time.

(5) Threatening. The quiet teacher who gives orders and tacitly but clearly expects them to be obeyed, leaves the pupils to "guess" what will happen to them in case of disobedience, until such

disobedience occurs, when the punishment comes surely, promptly, and unmistakingly.

(6) Scolding and using sarcasm and epithets. Very rarely indeed should the teacher use these weapons, and then only as a deliberate and judicial punishment.

(7) Cultivating the picturesque and bizarre. It seems to be a perversity of substitutes and new teachers to run off into spelling matches, tactics, and other exercises entirely legitimate in their place and in the hands of experienced teachers, instead of keeping down to business.

(8) Driving the willful child into obstinacy. Instead of avoiding conflict, she is apt to think it her duty to raise issues and "conquer" the pupil's will.

(9) Assigning school exercises as punishments. The wrong of doing this needs no demonstration, yet it is a mistake made by nearly every new teacher.

(10) Punishing a group for the offense of an individual. Far better is it to let a dozen guilty pupils escape than to punish them and with them a single innocent pupil.

Compare the provision in Richmond: "When an offense that demands punishment has been committed, and it is impossible to fasten the guilt upon the proper

parties, the teacher may administer general punishment to the entire class." — Rule 76.

Every teacher must understand what "order" is. First, she should have a definite concept of the term, as broad a one as circumstances permit; and then, she must demand and get that kind of order.

The biology of the matter must not be lost sight of. "During the period of rapid growth a nerve center craves for activity. It is for this reason that during infancy and early childhood, when the reflexes of the spinal cord are rapidly maturing, little children are constantly moving about; and, if they are normal, never of their own accord sit still; while to the perverted moral sense of the schoolmaster, sitting still is one of the chief virtues of the schoolroom. The kindergarten has adjusted itself to this biological fact; the school has not." [1]

We hear much, in these days, of secondary motives; and prizes, marks, merits, and the like are condemned wholesale. There is danger in following this line of theory too far. There is, in reality, no such thing intrinsically as a secondary motive; a motive is secondary only in relation to some primary motive which is recognized as loftier and less egoistic. What for one person under a certain condition may

[1] Thomas M. Balliet, "Educational Foundations," vol. xviii, p. 495.

be a basely secondary motive, may for another be a relatively high and primary motive. In treating a class of pupils it must be remembered that *order* is to be maintained. If this can come by appeal to high motives, then those are the motives to use; but if these motives do not *reach* the class, the teacher must promptly use motives progressively less high until she comes upon one that reaches. From this level she may then begin to work up through the scale, carrying the class to higher and better ideals — but, she *must* have order.

2. Beyond these specific suggestions which the principal will offer to new teachers, there is a general duty which he owes to all teachers. New and experienced alike, they must be aided by automatic provisions to treat "cases" of discipline themselves. They must be given definite disciplinary powers in such matters as punishment of pupils, appealing to parents, and so on. The teacher should clearly understand how far she may go in the administration of punishment: what limits she should put upon her use of reproof and reprimand; what privileges may properly be withheld from pupils; to what extent systems of merit and demerit may be used; how long pupils may be detained after sessions, etc.

Wholesale detention of pupils is of little good effect; indeed, it is apt to be demoralizing rather than reforming. It is limited in many cities: *e.g.* Newark and Rochester, to one hour; New York and Jersey City, to thirty minutes; Cleveland, to twenty minutes.

"Punishment by keeping children after school should be reduced to the minimum because of the devitalized condition of the air." [1]

Whether or not teachers should enter into direct communication with parents in regard to the discipline of pupils, it is clear that there should be no misunderstanding on the point between principal and teachers. The limit of responsibility and the limit of restraint put upon the teachers should be accurately defined.

One extreme is for the principal not only to permit teachers to communicate directly with parents on any matters concerning the welfare of pupils, but to refuse to take part in such communication, thus throwing the teachers upon their own resources.

The opposite course is entirely to prohibit teachers from writing notes to parents, having all communications go directly from the principal to the parents.

A middle course is to permit teachers to write notes, but to have all such notes countersigned or indorsed by the principal. Such a plan has certain advantages,[2] and

[1] Rowe, *op. cit.*, p. 166.

[2] Cf. pp. 46, 105.

in following it, it is helpful to prescribe certain note forms to be used under all ordinary conditions. If "blank" copies of these forms can be furnished to the teachers for use in each case, there is a gain in economy of effort for the teacher, and in a guarantee of good arrangement of the note that is sent.

Forms for use in discipline are here suggested: —

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100
BROADWAY AND FULTON ST.

NEW YORK,----------190--

M.----------

DEAR----------:

I am sorry to tell you that---------- is disorderly in the class room. Naturally this is affecting h___ school work. Will you please to give the matter your attention, and oblige,

Respectfully,

TEACHER.

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100
BROADWAY AND FULTON ST.

NEW YORK,----------190--

M.----------

DEAR----------:

I regret that I must inform you of----------'s misconduct. To-day----------

---

I am sure that you do not approve of such behavior and trust that you will coöperate to prevent its recurrence.

Respectfully,

.....

TEACHER.

Where such forms are supplied the teacher is not to feel hampered by their use; if she wishes to send a note not in accordance with a form, she should be free to do so with the approval of the principal.

3. When the teacher has exhausted her resources in the discipline of a pupil, she should have the opportunity of referring the case to the principal. In such a case, should she send the pupil from the room with a peremptory verbal order for him to "go to the principal"? Or should she follow some system of formal report? In favor of the former procedure it may be said that the teacher wastes no time and immediately rids herself of the troublesome pupil. On the other hand, the time that it takes to write a formal complaint is compensated for by the added dignity and seriousness[1] which the

[1] Psychological "vividness," one of the factors of recall, is thus employed. Cf. Bagley, "Educative Process," p. 171: "If the child is to be corrected for a serious fault, it is necessary to make the experience of correction as vivid as possible in order absolutely to insure an inhibitory effect in the future."

complaint assumes, and by the evidence that is thus given to the accused pupil and all the others that the teacher is acting in a calm and judicial manner.

For the adoption of a formal system, the following suggestions are offered:—

A card of some such arrangement as this —

DISCIPLINE

CASE SETTLED	PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100
	Room No.----- Date----------190--
Date:----------	Name----------
----------	Reason----------

By----------	----------
----------	----------TEACHER.

(No pupil reported should be permitted to return without credential from the office.)

should have entered on it all the necessary information as to the items indicated. The complaint should be specific. General charges, while they may be well understood by the principal, are not readily handled. The principal realizes that a boy whose misconduct takes the form of petty disorders and sly meannesses is a more troublesome problem for the teacher than the boy who deliberately assaults another or willfully breaks a pane of glass; but

this is not so well understood by the layman, particularly by the parent, or the board of education member before whom the case may ultimately come upon an appeal. Hence the principal cannot accept a charge of "general disorder," because that is too indefinite; nor of "talking," because that is usually regarded lightly by laymen; nor of "inattention," because that is a psychological matter and chargeable to the teacher and her method. But "willful disobedience," "impudence," "insolence," are recognizable offenses; and it is better to make even these more specific, and to frame charges thus: "I told him to change his seat and he refused to do so." "He told me 'I will not' when I ordered him to pass to the line." "Maliciously kicked William during a recitation."

The cases of general disorder can usually be reached by reducing them to their lowest common denominator, namely, a specific instance of willful disobedience.

A pupil thus reported should not be permitted under any circumstances to return to his room without authority from the principal. He is not to return with a statement that "the principal is not in his office," nor even to get his hat or his books; these can be sent to the principal by the teacher or sent for by the principal. Once reported in this way, the pupil is to feel that he has taken himself out of the class society, and only a satisfactory settlement can restore him to his place.

It is almost needless to say that when a pupil has been reported to the principal, he shall receive

no consideration, pending the settlement of his case, which tends to make his ostracism in any way agreeable or interesting: he must not be sent on errands because he is handy; he must not even be a witness of the routine work of the office, for this has a passing interest for him; he must be kept, so far as may be, alone with his thoughts.

Frequently the principal may consider the case one which the teacher could have handled; when this is so, he may place his own ideas before her, and ask if she still wishes the formal complaint to stand. If she does, the principal will take her at her word and prosecute the case; on the contrary, if she sees that she had not exhausted her own resources, she may make some excuse for hunting up the pupil and securing from him some satisfactory assurance of his good intentions. She may then on behalf of the pupil request the principal to cancel the formal charge, thus frequently winning over the pupil by her intercession for him.

4. How shall the principal dispose of the case when it reaches him? By observing certain principles he may dispose of disciplinary cases promptly, unhesitatingly, and yet satisfactorily and with due regard to the individuality of the pupil.

(1) He must maintain a judicial attitude and temper throughout. He will avoid the personal element and keep the issue to the point that the pupil has violated law and rules.

(2) He must bear in mind the progressive character of proper discipline, varying with the age and understanding of the pupil.

(3) His treatment will be proportioned to the magnitude of the offense, the spirit in which it was committed, and the past record and personal equation of the offender.

(4) He will state the complaint to the pupil and hear his defense.

(5) If possible he will lead the pupil to convict himself.

(6) He will remember that reformation, correction, settlement, and not revenge, are sought; punishment is to be applied only if necessary.

"A public punishment is fearfully unequal in its incidence: one boy feels the publicity so much more than another; moreover, it either hardens the offender and destroys his self-respect, or else, if he takes it gamely, it makes him a hero; as for the onlookers it makes them insufferably self-righteous." [1]

[1] J. L. Paton, "Educational Foundations," Vol. XVIII, p. 529.

(7) He will get the desired result, if possible, by working with the pupil alone. The older the pupil the more effective the appeal to his sense of manhood, his sense of right, the "square deal," etc.

(8) When the pupil admits his error, at least on his first offense, there remains only that he should give some tangible evidence of his contrition and his intention to do right in the future. This he may do in a variety of ways, for instance: —

(*a*) If he has damaged property he may repair or replace it.

(*b*) If he has taken from his class time which did not belong to him, he may forfeit his own time.

(*c*) If he has committed an offense against the class, he may apologize to them; or if against his teacher, to her.

If it is a class matter, his reinstatement might depend upon a favorable vote of the class. If a teacher matter, he may be given an opportunity of writing a letter of apology and of assurance as to his future conduct, which the principal may send to the teacher for her consideration.

If a boy "dodges" the issue and is inclined to charge his own misconduct to "the other boys,"

he may logically enough be transferred to a girls' class where there are no boys to disturb him.

When he is returned to his class, he may be reinstated *on probation.*

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M----------

In view of----------'s desire for a trial in his class, I reinstate him on PROBATION. Please send him to me daily at ----------M. with a report as to his conduct:—

Day No.	Day of Week	Conduct	Teacher	Approved
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				

(9) Under certain conditions a principal will report a discipline case to the pupil's parents: (1) if it is a repeated offense by a pupil too young to reason clearly in the premises; (2) if it is an offense

by a pupil old enough to reason, who refuses to carry out the reasoning to its logical conclusion; (3) if the offense points to physical defect as its cause.

". . . the physical side of the child's nature is the source of a far larger amount of psychical deformity than is usually admitted. Any child under question should be assumed to be weak or degenerating physically, until the investigation has falsified the assumption." [1]

The chief reasons for referring to the parent are to secure coöperation [2] of the parent and teacher, or to insure adequate punishment of the pupil. The principal may rightfully take the position that he assumes that the parent desires that his child shall do right and respect law and rules. He may point out, when punishment is required, that the parent has greater resources at his command than has the school, and that the parent may use whatever form of punishment seems best fitted. If the teacher had but one pupil, and that his, — the principal may

[1] Rowe, *op. cit.*, p. vii.

[2] So stated in the rules in some cities, for example, St. Louis: "For the purpose of securing the coöperation of parents or guardians, any pupil may be sent home from school by the principal; provided, however, that such temporary suspension shall not extend over a longer period than two days," etc. — Rule 50.

explain to the parent, — then it would be an easy matter for the teacher to handle the case without any appeal to the parent; but as she has a constant duty to some forty or fifty other pupils, it must be clear that in justice to them she should not be required to devote an unreasonable amount of time to his child. On this basis the parent may be required to deal with his child in such a manner as shall guarantee the propriety of his reinstatement to his class. In referring to the parent, the principal must be "sure of his case." He must have a clear case in order to guard against a just appeal from his decisions by the parent — a case so clear that, if the parent does appeal it, the principal and the school are sure to be upheld and vindicated.

The following form is suggested for the reference of a case to the parent: —

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100,
BROADWAY AND FULTON ST.,

NEW YORK,----------190--

M----------

DEAR----------:

I regret I must inform you of----------'s misconduct in school. ----e has been reported to me by M----------for----------

I have been obliged therefore to withdraw h____ from h____ class until you call in regard to h____ reinstatement.

Respectfully,

PRINCIPAL

This is not a suspension of the pupil, for he is kept in the school awaiting the parent's attention. Of course, in most cities, the attendance of the parent cannot legally be demanded by the principal, so that the principal should never use a note of this form unless he is ready to follow it up, if the parent fails to respond, with formal suspension of the pupil in accordance with law.

(10) If corporal punishment is permitted, as it is in many cities, the principal must exercise considerable discretion in its administration.

a. He should reserve this form of punishment for a general emergency, or as a "last resort" in the case of an individual offender. Almost without exception, the adolescent pupil should never be so punished.

Cf. Providence: "No scholar above the primary grades shall be liable to corporal punishment." — Rules, Art. XIV, Sec. 1.

b. He should always have witnesses to the punishment.[1] It is a decided advantage to have the teacher-complainant present.

[1] A witness is required in Richmond.

c. Even though it be not required by law, he will do well to have the written authority — or better, request — of the parent.[1]

When the parent protests against concerning himself with his child's misbehavior, and intimates that they did things better when he went to school, meaning that the switch was more in evidence, the principal may slip forward the following form for him to sign: —

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To the Principal,
Public School No. 100.

DEAR SIR:

In view of the repeated misconduct of my son, ----------, I hereby request you to apply such corporal punishment in his case as in your judgment may seem advisable. Respectfully,

(Signed)----------

By refusing to sign, he convicts himself of not having meant what he said; by signing, he minimizes the effect of any protest he may make subsequent to the administration of the requested punishment.

If corporal punishment is prohibited by statute or by rule, the principal may argue to the parent who wants his child whipped that as the school can-

[1] Such consent is required by the rules in Louisville and Providence.

not do it and he can, it is clearly a matter for him to attend to.

No discussion of the merits of the corporal punishment question is attempted, because: (1) for principals in a large number of cities it is an academic question; (2) it has already been amply and ably treated in pedagogic literature; and (3) we are dealing with the administrative phase of school problems. However, the following general propositions are submitted.

1. The great majority of teachers and principals who are dealing with boys, those who are closest to the problems of the school and who are held most directly responsible for the education of the pupils, doubt the wisdom of absolutely prohibiting corporal punishment. This does not prove that they are heartless or cruel or unthinking or unfit.

2. The majority of school people who believe in prohibiting corporal punishment are educational theorists or else educators who are not directly concerned with or responsible for the discipline of boys. This does not prove that they are insincere or unthinking or unfit.

3. The theorists, who, appealing to popular prejudice, have succeeded in having corporal punishment legally prohibited in places, have not demonstrated that there has been a gain in the moral development of pupils. The practicalists, who have the technical insight and experience, but not the popular side of the question, can readily demonstrate that in most cities the education of hundreds of pupils is thereby seriously hampered.

4. The opposition of these two forces, the theorists and the practicalists, must eventually result, either in the defeat of the theorists or in the discovery of some more satisfactory substitute for corporal punishment than any that has yet been advanced. Pupils must be trained to respect law. Law must have a *sanction*. The present sanctions offered as substitutes for corporal punishment are inadequate. If adequate sanctions can be found, every practical school man will rejoice as sincerely as the most enthusiastic reformer.

5. In order that he may handle each case promptly, speedily, and intelligently, the principal must have some system of keeping a record of his discipline.

A card system, with a five-by-eight card of the following form, is convenient: —

DISCIPLINE

Father's Name---------- Name----------

Address---------- Date of Birth----------

Business Address---------- Date of Admission----------

Date	Room	Teacher	Complaint	Disposition	Date Settled

The mere filling out of this card in the presence of the pupil and in response to his answers to the principal's questions, lends an impressive dignity and seriousness to the situation. In filling in for Disposition, the principal may use a simple code of abbreviations: p 5/18 = postal sent to parent on May 18; 1 m m 5/19 = note form No. 1 sent to mother by mail May 19; f c 5/20 = father called May 20; pr 5/22 = placed in class on probation, May 22, etc. The original card of complaint by the teacher is attached to this record card until the case is settled. Upon settlement, the record card is filed alphabetically, with all correspondence, probation sheets, etc., attached thereto. If the same pupil comes before the principal on a second complaint, reference to this card immediately recalls to the principal all the circumstances of the former complaint and enables him to act with greater intelligence than if he but trusted to his memory.

Any consideration of the topic of Discipline would be incomplete without some discussion of the so-called self-government systems which have been experimented with in many schools with varying success.

The *Gill* system,[1] as exemplified in the New Paltz

[1] Mr. Wilson L. Gill is president of "The American Patriotic League," chartered under the laws of Congress "to proclaim the necessity for systematic instruction in citizenship, in the schools and out of them; to cultivate the knowledge of American principles, laws, history, and progress, and to instill American ideas into the minds

Normal School, provides for school cities wherein the pupils of the several grades select from among their own numbers a mayor and other executive officers, members of a city council, and judges and other court officers; and for a school state, composed of the pupils of the entire school, who, in accordance with the terms of a constitution, select a governor, legislators, and judicial officers. The general plan is extremely flexible, however, and admits of wide and varied application. The advantages claimed are: it gives the students a voice in the management of the school; it supplements theory with practice; it makes school government an instrument for social and political improvement; it strengthens the sense of individual responsibility; it trains for civil service; the time and energy demanded for its supervision is well spent.

As compared with the Gill system, the *Ray* plan, initiated in the John Crevar School, Chicago, by Mr. John T. Ray, involves less machinery and fewer officers, provides for no courts of justice, and frankly

and hearts of Americans, native and adopted, of both sexes and all ages, sects, and parties." The League publishes a series of books, information regarding which may be had by addressing the president, 340 West Duval St., Germantown, Penn.

excludes the teaching of civics as one of its aims. The motto is: Government of the pupils, by the pupils, for the pupils; and the intention is to shift a large share of the responsibility from the teacher to the pupils. It provides for the monthly election of a *tribune* in each room, who shall be the official spokesman of that room, receiving complaints, investigating the same, and eventually reporting them to the teacher. The tribunes from all the classes constitute the School Council. In general, pupils are held responsible for their own and others' conduct.

In the Arsenal School, Hartford, Conn., there is a somewhat similar plan, which will be found described in Bagley, "Class-room Management," p. 291.

A concise argument for the general proposition of pupil self-government is given by Superintendent Maxwell:[1] "The temptation is always present, and is generally overwhelming, for the child culprit who suffers punishment . . . at the hands of an autocratic authority such as the principal or the teacher, to pose as a hero or a martyr. If, however, the same punishment were inflicted by a jury of his peers, the consolation of strutting as a hero or posing

[1] Annual Report, 1905, p. 121.

as a martyr would be entirely removed. The efficacy of the punishment would be reënforced by the whole strength of the public opinion of the class or the school. The ridicule or the pity of his fellows is what the child finds it hardest to endure and what he will strive most earnestly to avoid. In this psychological fact lies the chief reason for the success, such as it is, that has attended the different forms of pupil self-government that have been tried at various times in the history of education. Add to this, that the exercise of governmental powers by the pupils in the administration of a school is an excellent training in executive ability and an unsurpassed preparation for the duties of citizenship, and an exceedingly strong case is made out in favor of pupil self-government."

There is also something to be said on the other side of the subject. There is danger of overdoing any system of this sort to the extent that low motives of desire for "show" are being employed. Pupils should be brought to behave themselves without any "display" of good behavior. Reduced to its lowest terms, any plan of this kind is a form of monitorial supervision, and as such shares the disadvantages of the monitorial system.

Louisville settles the question of monitors thus: "Pupils shall not at any time be required or permitted to act as monitors." — Manual, Sec. 2, Rule 18.

Richmond restricts their use (Rule 50) to certain helpful duties unrelated to supervision of other pupils.

Worcester, Mass., provides: "No monitor shall be appointed to act in any capacity in any school building, except in such instances as the Superintendent may, in the exercise of his judgment, deem desirable." — Regulations, Chapter IV, Sec. 23.

In an eighth year class of boys in a New York City school where there is no system of monitors, 42 out of 46 voted against the establishment of any such system. Some of the reasons are here quoted in their pristine but forceful simplicity: —

"Boys learn to be more trustworthy without them."

"Boys are apt to behave themselves only when the monitors are there."

"Monitor might have a grudge against some boy, etc. . . ."

"Pupils get jealous of monitors. . . ."

"Boys ought to learn to take care of themselves."

"Causes ill-feeling between boys."

"Monitor can't fight a big boy, and if he reports him he gets him outside. . . ."

"Some monitors go a little too far and think they are It. . . ."

"If his friends do anything, he doesn't report it. . . ."

But lying deeper than this criticism is the question as to what constitutes self-government. We must all believe in self-government; indeed we might stretch its definition so that it should be synonymous with Education itself. At least, for each individual to learn the great secret of self-government, to learn to control himself in every direction, is the great aim of moral education. But do these "systems" of self-government teach *self*-government; do they not rather teach each pupil to govern the *other* pupil? Which is the greater education, for a man to learn to obey the law because he must, perforce, or to learn to do right regardless of statutory requirements?

There is yet another phase to the subject, and that is the administrative problem. It is admitted that any "plan" needs constant supervision by teachers and principal. Hence we must estimate the entries on both sides of the energy account and figure the balance.

The teaching of civics, at least as much as the pupil can understand, is readily accomplished without the aid of any formal pupil-government schemes. The class-room discipline does not need reënforcement by a uniform school plan: the indi-

vidual teacher, if excellent, will have good order without recourse to an artificial motive of this kind, or if she wishes to use one can well initiate and administer her own plan; if not a satisfactory teacher, and if she cannot secure class-room order without a superimposed plan, she is not likely to get it with such a plan.

There remains to be considered the conduct of pupils when left alone in their rooms and when on corridors and stairways. There is always the danger of accident to pupils in their school life, and at such a time the monitorial system is highly unsatisfactory. To illustrate, suppose a boy falls downstairs at a dismissal and is seriously injured. Such an accident is likely to happen under whatever system of supervision may be employed, but it is the school which is held responsible by the parents. The father calls at the school to investigate. The principal must send for the person who was responsible for the supervision of the pupils as they were dismissed. Under a pupil-government system, that person proves to be a twelve-year-old boy; and the principal explains to the parent that the boys were "governing themselves." Might not the parent reasonably take exception to the condition? Under

the teacher-government system the person who appears is a responsible adult, a paid employee, a person in a position of authoritative supervision.[1] The assurance to the parent that the accident to the child was unavoidable, and occurred *in spite* of the most careful prevision and supervision by legally constituted school authorities, would tend to allay any feeling of animosity which the father had brought with him.

The problem, then, from the administrative point of view, would seem to reduce itself to this: Any scheme of pupil government requires the *expense* of a large amount of supervisory energy by principal and teachers; the chief, if not the sole, practical *income* from such a scheme is a monitorial supervision of the school territory outside the class room; question — Does the income exceed the expense?

2. Attendance and Punctuality

One of the ever-present duties of the principal is to secure proper attendance and punctuality on the

[1] Cf. "Principals . . . shall require the teachers to take such charge of pupils while passing through the halls and on the stairways, and during recess, as may in their judgment be considered best for the protection and care of the pupils and the discipline of the school." — Philadelphia, Rules, XVII, Sec. 3.

part of pupils. The importance of constant attendance is so clearly recognized by most principals and by all writers on administration that nothing need be said here on that score. What is needed perhaps is a word of caution to the effect that absence may be too severely emphasized, particularly in the case of higher grade girls (see p. 164).

Regular attendance should, of course, be secured by the pupil's liking for school; in the early years chiefly for its immediate interests, but later in response to a sense of duty, in realization of the value of education and his obligations to society. The pupil must feel that absence from school is a loss, *his* loss; and part of the duty of the principal is to make his school something that pupils cannot afford to lose.

But even with the most attractive of schools, using the word *attractive* in its best and broadest sense, many pupils will be unnecessarily absent and tardy. It then becomes a matter of discipline, and as such must be governed by the law of growth. At first, the attendance of the child is a matter of obedience: he *must* go to school. If in no other way, he must be brought daily by some one at home, until the habit of school-going has been established.

Later, he will attend as a matter of reason: he *ought* to go to school.

Lateness for younger pupils is usually the fault of the parents, whose coöperation must be secured; for older pupils it can be made a matter of duty,[1] and with them the emphasis may be placed upon the training for life, and especially for business.

Louisville provides: "Any pupil who shall not be present punctually . . . before being allowed to take his place in his class shall, if the principal request it, present an excuse signed by the parent or guardian stating the cause of tardiness." — Manual, Sec. 5, Rule 6. It would seem, however, that no pupil should ever be excluded from the school building for lateness, either by rule or by spirit; the stimuli to truancy are sufficiently plentiful without adding this one.

Many forms of notes to apply to attendance and punctuality could be devised, but local conditions will so far govern the exact wording as to make inadvisable the suggestion of more than the following: —

[1] "First of all, the children must be taught the moral wrong of want of punctuality." — LEVI SEELEY, "A New School Management," New York, 1903, p. 106.

"The child should very early form the habit of meeting every engagement promptly, and there is no way to form this habit save by making tardiness a serious offense." — BAGLEY, "Classroom Management," p. 77.

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100,
BROADWAY AND FULTON ST.,

NEW YORK,----------190--

M----------

DEAR----------:

I am sorry to inform you that----------
has been late ----------times this----------.

By seeing that --he is punctual in the future, you will oblige,

Respectfully,

PRINCIPAL

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100,
BROADWAY AND FULTON ST.,

NEW YORK,----------190--

M----------

DEAR----------:

----------has been late ----------times in the last ----------weeks.

It is extremely important that the habit of punctuality shall become fixed in a pupil's school life. Will you therefore kindly coöperate with us in our efforts to secure ----------'s punctual attendance.

Respectfully,

PRINCIPAL

(For New York State)

PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 100,
BROADWAY AND FULTON ST.,

NEW YORK,----------190---

M----------

DEAR----------:

----------'s school attendance has been very irregular during the past----------.

According to our records, ---he will soon be fourteen years old. If you intend to put h----- at work when ---he is fourteen, it will be necessary for h----- to attend more regularly. Under the law, ----he must have attended school *at least* one hundred thirty (130) days since h----- thirteenth birthday before ---he can obtain an employment certificate.

Respectfully,

PRINCIPAL

Many schemes for securing attendance and punctuality are variously popular. To appeal to class spirit and to class rivalry is a favorite method; to designate by some decoration, a flag, for example, the class having perfect attendance and punctuality is another; and so on: such plans usually produce

results, but even in their use there should be a constant struggle to get away from this to some higher motive.

By some it is thought logical to reward a class which has made a record for a stated period by dismissing those pupils some minutes earlier on the last day of the period; but it would seem as though such a reward were based upon a wrong conception of school. Shall we encourage pupils to regard school as something to be avoided, and exemption from participation in school exercises something to be desired and striven for? Would it not be more logical to reward all pupils who have met the condition of a perfect record in attendance — or, in fact, any other desirable condition — with the privilege of *remaining* beyond the time of the regular school session? It would be a poor teacher indeed who could not make an extra half hour or hour, once a month, so interesting that pupils would strive to earn the privilege of sharing it with her.

But with all our efforts we will still have baffling cases of willful, persistent absence which we call truancy. Compulsory education laws in most States provide attendance officers whose duty it is to carry

the authority of the State on behalf of the school into the homes and on the streets in a search for and capture of truants. Thus the principal usually has certain definite duties of coöperation with these officers, varying in the different States, so that his broad pedagogic treatment of truancy will necessarily be colored by the local law. Among the general propositions may be noted the following: —

1. Eternal vigilance is the price of freedom from extensive truancy. Teachers must be trained to notify parents promptly of absence of pupils and to secure satisfactory excuses from pupils upon their return;[1] they would better err on the safe side, and be overcareful than not cautious enough. They must feel their responsibility, and not permit unexplained absence to run without reporting it.

[1] Mandatory in some cities, *e.g.* Providence: "Each pupil who shall be absent from school, shall, on his return, bring to the teacher a written excuse from his parent or guardian for such absence." — Rules, Art. XI, Sec. 9. The Rochester rule is particularly stringent: "No mere statement that the parent has kept the pupil at home shall be accepted by the teacher as an excuse for absence; and, unless it shall appear that the pupil has been detained by sickness, or some other urgent reason, which would render attendance impossible, or which would cause a serious and imprudent exposure of health, the excuse shall not be deemed satisfactory." — Art. III, Pupils.

2. To deal effectively with the truant, the principal must sympathize with him and understand his attitude.

It is certainly not difficult to understand the truant. Two factors enter into the make-up of the human individual, heredity and environment.

Heredity is twofold, general and special.

In general, the boy inherits from centuries of the race the nomadic instinct. For millions of years his ancestors were living out of doors; it is for but a comparatively brief period that any of them have been going to school. The "natural" instinct, then, is to listen to the call of the wild; the call to the schoolroom is purely a conventional one. What is more natural than that a child, even though he has been drilled for several years in the conventional habit of school-going, should occasionally lapse into the ancestral state for a day or two? Indeed, what adult is there with red blood in his circulation, who does not at some time rebel against the restraints of that conventionalism which, as Dr. Van Dyke says, "transforms the rhythm of life into a logarithm."

But, specifically, the boy has a more immediate inheritance which may make or mar his natural equipment. A very few generations of ill-nurtured or disease-succumbing parents suffice to launch the child into life with a severe handicap in the form of serious physical defects. To persist in going to school when school offers no appeal, and when to stay out of doors is to follow the path of least

resistance, demands of a boy a certain amount of dynamic force. When, however, the immediate inheritance of the child is a defective body and unresisting mind, the result is a mental inertia which must be overcome before the conventional school can hold him against the natural out of doors.[1]

The environment factor is manifold, but chiefly, for the truant, it is of the home and of the school, and it behooves us to consider both. The home conditions may be squalid and the home forces may be against the influence of the school and in favor of driving the boy to the bad. On the other hand, the school itself, at least the particular class and teacher that represent the school environment of the truant, may be such as to repel rather than attract.

All of these factors must be given consideration by the principal in dealing with the individual truant before he can meet him on a basis of sympathetic understanding. If the truant feels that the principal knows what he is "up against," he is much more likely to listen to argument and appeal.

3. If the principal can get into sympathetic relations with one truant, he can often successfully use him as a means of influence with other truants, for

[1] "How hard it is to be civilized and how easy it is to be primitive and brutal is only thoroughly appreciated by those who have slipped from the plane of humanity and are painfully struggling to climb back." — BAGLEY, "Educative Process," p. 102.

it must be remembered that the truant rarely travels alone.

4. "Discipline" cases of pupils inclined to truancy must be handled with particular skill, lest in reaching a lesser offense the pupil is prompted to commit a greater.

3. Habits and Ideals

We have defined discipline as the process which leads the individual to do right, and we have applied the term to manners and to morals. It would be possible, though fruitless, to draw fine distinctions between manners and morals; but from the practical pedagogic standpoint the two are inevitably interdependent. For the child, morals is largely a matter of manners; for the intelligent adult, manners is largely a matter of morals. Hence, while we would make the adult mannerly through his moral sense, we reach the young child's morals largely through his manners. We have, therefore, a deep reason for teaching manners, — as a means to moral ends, — as well as the important reason of teaching them for their own intrinsic value.

To run the gamut from manners to morals, is to go from the mere social conventions such as

salutations, public deportment, table etiquette, and the like, through the hygienic requirements of cleanliness, exercise, sleep, posture, dress, and so on, up to the recognized commandments as to truth-telling, chastity, and reverence. The law of growth must be here recognized: as the pupil grows out from under dogmatic government up to self-government, from obedience perforce to obedience to right, he will find for both his manners and his morals increasingly intelligent motives. Nevertheless, the aim of disciplinary education is to convert all these virtues into habits, so that politeness, cleanliness, and honesty equally become automatic expressions of a symmetrically developed character.

The initial influence of the home upon these habits is not to be underestimated, but it is doubtful whether we should assume that they are irrevocably settled in the first six years of the child's life — that "the question of submission or lawlessness, of truthfulness or falsehood, of deceit or honesty, is decided . . . for most children, before they are supposed capable of understanding it." [1] Be this as it may, the school still must both strengthen the good habits

[1] George Howland, "Practical Hints for the Teachers of Public Schools," New York, 1896, p. 5.

it finds and combat the wrong ones, whatever their origin and whatever the force of other influences.

This puts a large duty upon the principal, some phases of which are here summarized: —

1. "The order, the industry, and the culture of our schools, though indirect and often unconscious, are yet efficient and ever-present moral influences, which we cannot well overestimate." [1] Granting this, it is evidently incumbent upon the principal to develop in his school a maximum of morally effective order, industry, and culture.

2. Teachers must be impressed with the duty of the school to inculcate good habits in manners and morals. Discipline of pupils, meaning their training to do right, is frequently construed by the teacher to mean training them to do what she wants them to do. If her wants are broadly intelligent, all is well; but many teachers attend chiefly or solely to those habits which most directly affect the pupils' accomplishment of intellectual tasks. It is quite possible for a boy with soiled hands and face to master his geography lesson; a girl can write an interesting composition regardless of careless coiffure

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 8, though apparently inconsistent with the previous quotation.

or slovenly attire; a pupil who is daily becoming more and more of a liar can yet do keen work in arithmetic; and so the teacher may overlook the moral in her education of the intellectual.[1] It is the business of the principal not alone to emphasize the work of moral education, but also to be careful not to nullify this emphasis by holding the teacher and her class too constantly to purely intellectual standards. To preach to teachers the necessity for moral training, and then to rate them solely on the absolute results their classes show on written examinations, is to make a pretence and a farce of character building.

3. Good habits, it scarce need be said, must be taught first of all by example. The Rules of the Cleveland Board of Education put it well: "It shall be a duty of the first importance on the part of teachers to be models in personal appearance and in conduct, for the pupils under their care. They are especially enjoined to avail themselves of every opportunity to inculcate neatness, promptness, polite-

[1] "The school should produce in its pupils nothing of shyness, insincerity, deception, meanness, selfishness, dishonesty, untruthfulness, or laziness. These, as well as all other vices, are developed by practice." — LARKIN DUNTON, "Education," February, 1892, p. 327.

ness, cheerfulness, truthfulness, patriotism, and all the virtues which contribute to the effectiveness of the schools, the good order of society, and the safety of our American citizenship."

4. The establishment and sustenance of moral habits is dependent upon the development of proper ideals. As "the emotional element is dominant," and as "art, literature (including poetry, the drama, and fiction), music, and religion are the great media for the transmission of ideals and as such fulfill an educative function far more fundamental than our didactic pedagogy has ever realized," [1] it is evident that this phase of the school life must be deliberately enforced and constantly reënforced. One of the most potent ideals developable in school is that of *esprit de corps;* so important is it, that it seems to merit discussion as a separate topic.

4. School Spirit

"In the school of to-day feeling and sentiment are to be cultivated no less than thought and expression." [2] "Perhaps the best check to vice and the largest incentive to virtue is the public opinion of the child's

[1] Bagley, "Educative Process," p. 224.
[2] Dutton, "School Management," p. 5.

friends and associates. This *esprit de corps* is the teacher's strongest lever in promoting efficiency and good government among the boys and girls. To utilize this lever requires oversight and guidance, but it must not be obtrusive nor overapparent to the child." [1] This *esprit de corps*, school atmosphere, pride in the school and thought for its name and honor, is not to be gained in a day. It must become a matter of tradition and, once established, be handed down from one set of pupils to another. The influence of the older pupils upon the younger; of the graduates of the school upon their younger brothers and sisters, and their friends; of the parents and other citizens in the community, — all this is of immense direct value in its effect upon the conduct of pupils. It counts for much if the parents advise their friends, "Get your boy into No. 100 if you can; it is a great school;" if the alumni think that it is a special honor to graduate from the school; and if the older pupils correct the young offenders in the name of the school.

This traditional school spirit may be developed through many agencies: —

1. The teachers in the class room may at every

[1] Arthur Deerin Call, "Education," January, 1907, p. 260.

convenient opportunity hold before the pupils stirring examples of loyalty, of "team-work," of sacrifice, as discovered in history, geography, and literature, occasionally leading the pupils along the direct inference as to the necessity for school spirit.

2. The school assembly is a valuable aid in fixing ideals, and particularly this one of *esprit de corps*. "A few words in the assembly room may strike home with telling effect. . . . The sentiment of the mass sweeps the individual before it." [1] The schemes for making the assembly an occasion of profit and interest and the means for the cultivation of ideals are innumerable. A few are here noted suggestively: (1) Recitations by pupils. Avoid show work of the gifted; better the successful effort of the diffident pupil to overcome his embarrassment than the exploitation of the students specially trained in elocution. In subject-matter, keep closely to the regular work of the classes. There is ample material that relates to or supplements the subjects of study, without bringing in popular recitation "pieces." (2) Discussions by pupils of current events. (3) Studies of pictures and other objects of art.

[1] Mr. Smiley, Proceedings, National Educational Association, 1896, p. 598.

(4) Musical studies of all kinds, again omitting disproportionate individual exploitation. (5) Celebration of special days, such as birthdays, battle days, anniversaries of inventions, discoveries, etc. (6) Flag drill and other distinctively patriotic exercises. (7) Outside speakers. Not every one can talk interestingly to children, but there are many who can bring to the pupils words of practical everyday wisdom and inspiration.

Cf., "No person shall be allowed to address any school, except the superintendent and members of the committee, and those invited by them." — Providence, By-Laws, Art. XVII, Sec. 4.

3. School athletics, especially those branches which develop team play, may, if properly organized and carefully supervised, promote physical development, reënforce the scholastic effort of pupils, and stimulate school spirit. "Every one believes that ample opportunity for physical exercise should be afforded all school children, but there are limits to the indulgence of this taste, and it is important that neither the moral standards of the participants should be debased by improper practices nor should their health be impaired by overexertion. Neither should athletics be allowed to assume too important a place

in the minds of the pupils to the disadvantage of academic subjects." [1]

4. Organization of the pupils within the school, along somewhat social lines, may be possible under certain conditions, and thus contribute to school spirit. Musical clubs, literary societies, scientific meetings, and so on, practically without limit, are all within the range of possibility. It is wise, however, not to permit too great a diversity of interest and dissipation of energy.

5. A school journal may, with supervisory aid, be conducted by pupil editors and managers, and give a legitimate expression to intelligent interest on behalf of a large number of pupils. A sufficient amount of advertising matter can usually be secured by a little enterprise to support the publication of such a paper.

6. An enthusiastic alumni association can give material support to a school. It is better to have no association, however, than to have one that is weak or uninterested in the school itself. In a new school, an association can be organized with the first class to graduate. The principal may inspire this organization and for a while direct its energies, but as the

[1] Annual Report of the School Committee of the City of Boston, 1906, p. 34.

years go on, he should gradually withdraw his prompting, leaving the work to be done entirely by the graduates themselves. They may give material donations to the school from time to time; but nothing of this kind, excellent as it is, can equal in value the intangible moral influence of an organized body of alumni who themselves reflect the high ideals of a school which has won their devotion and loyalty.

CHAPTER X

THE PRINCIPAL AND THE PRINCIPALSHIP

IT remains only to consider the principal himself and his personal relation to his office. This will be done under four heads: (1) his qualifications for the office;[1] (2) his adjustment to his position; (3) his personal growth; (4) the position itself.

1. The Qualifications for the Office

Every principal should be an excellent teacher; he should have had actual experience as a class teacher — this is imperative. However scholarly he may be, however sincere and earnest, the principal who has never held the position of class teacher cannot put himself in the teacher's place. He may delude himself into thinking that by his sporadic visits to the class room, or even by "taking a class"

[1] As this chapter goes to press there appears an inspiring article on "The Equipment of the School Principal," by Frederic Ernest Farrington, *Educational Review*, January, 1908, p. 41. Professor Farrington chooses as the most important qualifications: 1. scholarly attainments, 2. teaching skill, 3. executive ability, 4. a strong and attractive personality, 5. the capacity for growth.

for a long period, he is getting the view point of the teacher, but he is not; and without this view point he lacks the basis for sympathetic and effective supervision.

The principal should be all that the teacher is, and more; he must have teaching ability plus executive ability. Those teachers who have natural organizing and administrative aptitude, and those who, though lacking this yet feel capable of acquiring it, should seek their promotion along the lines leading to the executive positions. But teachers who do not fall readily into either of these classes should direct their efforts to preparing themselves for the teaching positions of the higher ranks, to the end that they may be the happier and the school system the stronger.

Executive ability for the principal is the generic ability which would apply equally well to the command of a regiment and to the superintendency of a factory, together with the specific ability to adapt the general principles to the administration of a school.

The executive in any office should possess (1) good working habits, (2) a grasp of detail, (3) a sense of proportion, (4) system, (5) certain personal virtues.

These will be considered in order, and in their special application to the work of the principal.

1. *Good Working Habits.* — Chief of these are promptness, speed, and accuracy. The principal must attend to his work promptly and turn it off rapidly in order that he may get it done; and he must do it accurately in order that he may not have to do it over again. The work of a hat factory is tangible and definite; the aim is to turn out so many hats in a given time at a minimum expense. The work of a school is tangible only in part; the aim is not, as many would have us believe, to turn out so many pupils in a given time at a minimum expense, but rather, in a given time, to render to pupils a maximum service, regardless of expense. The element of time enters into the calculations of both the factory and the school. In either case it is a constant and measurable factor. But beyond this there is a decided difference between the two problems: hats may be counted and the ratio of hats to minutes determined; but education and minutes are incommensurable. That is to say, the hat maker, working with increased rapidity and accuracy, computes his gain in hats; the principal, improving his habits of speed and accuracy, makes

gains uncounted and uncountable. There is a limit to the profit in the things called hats; there is no limit to the profit in the things of the spirit. Therefore the principal owes it to the large interests of his work to give unstinted effort to the perfecting of his working habits. He will apply to himself for the development of these habits the same psychology which he applies to pupils for the mechanizing of their habits; and with this simple but sufficient thought we may leave the subject.

2. *A Grasp of Detail.* — This, in effect, means a good memory, together with a well-developed ability to forget. The principal must note and recall, when necessary, the whole gamut of minor matters which, combined, form the life of his school. But it is equally important that these details should not depress him, or even impress him except in his marginal consciousness. In giving over the direct supervision of many of these details to his subordinates, he will retain a certain oversight of them which does not lead him into petty interference, but which does reënforce the attention given to them by his assistants; to sustain a delicate balance in this phase of the administrative problem is indeed a fine art.

3. *A Sense of Proportion.* — An elaboration of this theme could well lead us into the exploitation of a philosophy of life. A lack of a sense of proportion, all too common a trait among people otherwise very estimable, whereby one attempts to repair a watch with a crowbar or to remove a mountain with an orange spoon, is disastrous in any walk of life; and particularly so in an executive position. The principal whose chief concern is to ring electric bells, carry messages from room to room, or file reports that are models of the engrosser's art, may be very sincere, very industrious, and, in a way, very successful; but he certainly is inefficient as compared with the intelligent and well-proportioned supervisor. In the large, two converse principles will control the principal's administration: (1) never to do himself what some one else will do just as well as he, and (2) to concern himself mainly with those things which he alone can do, or which he can do better than others. He must do the important things, even if many matters intrinsically serious but relatively unimportant have to wait or even have to be neglected entirely. If there are not important things for him to do which he alone is fitted to do, then either he or his school is in a sad state. The practical applica-

tion of these two principles leads immediately to a consideration of the fourth qualification.

4. *System.* — The principal's intention to do things proportionately can gain concrete expression only by the use of system. This subject has been discussed apologetically (p. 4), and has been exemplified at many points throughout the extended discussion of technical details. In saving himself for the important duties, the principal will put as much of his routine as possible upon others. If a twelve-year-old girl is available who can push electric-bell buttons, if a ten-year-old boy can carry a message from room to room, if a teacher can compile a statistical report, it is wanton waste for the principal to put his energies into such directions. If he has supervisory or clerical assistants, it is easy for him to get relief from routine; if not, it can yet be secured if he will but prove to his teachers that he can help them far better by being freed from clerical and routine duties than by performing them himself. He ought to be able to show any teacher that if she will volunteer to act as his clerical assistant for, say, an hour a week outside her regular time, he will be free to help her in her work to such an extent as to make such service more than amply repaid.

To perform the mechanical work of his school the principal must make as perfect a machine as possible: not because of admiration for machinery as such, but because of the broadening work which such mechanizing makes possible. A machine is not easy to build, but it should be easy to run. The school which requires the hand of the principal unceasingly on the helm is sailing too close to the wind. Occasional absence of the principal should not make a ripple on the surface of the school life. This implies that the principal understudies his own position and those of his associates. For instance, on occasion, he will deliberately neglect certain duties which he ordinarily performs, seeing to it that they are properly attended to by some one else; then when he is necessarily off duty, the work of the school proceeds automatically.

Much of the time which the principal gains by system he will spend in class-room work. There are several reasons why he should get into the class room and teach. We have already considered three of them, namely: (1) to discover the work of the teacher; (2) to discover the bright or exceptional pupil whom the teacher, through daily familiarity, is less apt to note; (3) to give a "model" lesson.

To be added to these are other arguments: (4) it gives him the opportunity of maintaining his technical skill. Without practice he will cease to be an excellent teacher, and he should be such to the end of his career. (5) It helps him to maintain his sympathy for the teacher and her problems. This sympathetic understanding must be kept nourished to the point of fruitage. (6) It results favorably to the pupils by introducing them to variety, and in some cases, superiority; and by increasing the feeling of personal friendship between principal and pupils. (7) It relieves him from the monotony of office work. In the first months in his new position, he may welcome the change from his class-room experience; but as he familiarizes himself with his work, the administrative office routine becomes tedious and deadening unless relieved by constant association in the class room with teachers and pupils.

5. Certain personal traits, which, though chiefly dependent upon innate character, if lacking, may yet be acquired, or if weakly present, may be materially strengthened. The personal characteristics that make up the excellent teacher must be a prime possession of the principal. But as the prin-

cipal has to meet situations unknown to the teacher, solve problems which are never presented to her, deal with people to an extent that she is not called upon to do, so must the principal have highly developed the special virtues of courtesy and courage. Courtesy, for the principal, must include true kindness and the equable temper which is unbroken by the severest strains, so that his attitude toward pupils, teachers, and others shall be the same yesterday, to-day, and to-morrow; and further, it will be at once the cause and the effect of rational patience and true sympathy. Courage, for him, will be the outward expression of an innate and basic integrity, operating positively through firmness and negatively through reserve.

2. His Adjustment to His Position

The adjustment of the principal to his principalship will be accomplished in either of two ways, according to whether he is appointed to organize a new school, or to succeed a competent principal in the management of an already established school. In the one case, he must pursue a policy of masterly activity; in the other, one of artistic inactivity.

To organize a new school will demand painstaking

planning and energetic execution. As much of the organizing as is possible should be done before the pupils appear for admission: the selection of teachers, their assignments to grades and rooms and to duties outside the class rooms, the delivery of supplies, the outlining of at least the first few weeks of work, the publication of a few well-considered rules, etc. It is better to organize along all of these lines tentatively, even if many changes have to be made later, than to postpone planning until there is the added problem of actually having the pupils on hand. The principal will gain the respect and confidence of his teachers through his evident command of the many difficulties involved. They will be conscious of his mastery of the situation and will follow his leadership willingly and faithfully. His influence with the pupils will soon be felt, and the entire school will become the expression of his thought and his ideals.

Quite different from this is the problem of the principal who begins his work in a well-organized school as the successor of a respected principal. It will be a serious and far-reaching mistake for him to attempt to gain control by strenuous remodeling of the school to conform with his ideas. Teachers especially are

fearful of change; if they have adjusted themselves to the methods, requirements, and ideals of a principal whom they admire, they will react resentfully toward a rough and sudden overthrow of their accustomed system. Whether or not the new régime is more able or more just, has little to do with it; the mere fact of ruthless change will stir the teachers to an extent that it will take years to overcome. Hence the principal will proceed cautiously. Even if the school, according to his judgment, has been woefully mismanaged by his predecessor, he must remember that it has pulled along for some time and a few weeks more can make no great difference. The best that the new principal can do is to spend several weeks in patient but keen observation of conditions, studying appreciatively the good points of the prevailing system, attempting to administer details as nearly as may be in accord with the methods of his predecessor, and, in general, convincing the teachers that, after all, he is harmless. In time, one after another of them will come to view him as conservative, will note his ability in his settlement of daily difficulties, will regard him as thoroughly competent, and will be anxious to follow his leadership. Then, and then only, can he begin to reconstruct

according to his own notions; for then will his subordinates carry out his instructions intelligently, eagerly, and helpfully. This, to the new principal, looks like a programme of delay, and in following it he is inclined to chafe under the restraints which it imposes upon his initiative; but in reality it is a programme which, in the end, gains time immeasurably for the effective accomplishment of his purposes. With his teachers with him at last, he can, in a week, make transformations, install a system, and institute experiments, work that it would take years of struggle to accomplish were his teachers in a state of passive indifference or studied opposition.

3. His Personal Growth

"In the case of the teacher highest in his profession, we believe this rule will always be found to apply: he is intent upon improving himself and his pupils, physically, mentally, morally. . . . In accomplishing this, he is more desirous of remedying his own defects than in displaying his own virtues." [1] The principal will not permit himself to remain at any one level, however high it may be, but will consistently and conscientiously study to refresh and

[1] Hyland C. Kirk, "Education," June, 1891, p. 600.

replenish the sources of his own personality. His personal growth will take place along two main lines: professional development and general culture.

It has all along been assumed that the principal is *prepared* for his work, although no preparation can ever be regarded as *completed*. He must be conscious of the defects in his original preparation and study to remedy them. The very exercise of his specific school duties in the spirit of honest endeavor will overcome many of those defects, but he must not be content with this measure of correction. Education is science, and we are told that the scientist must burn his books every decade; the principal must deliberately keep pace with the advancement in the science of education by systematic reading, study, and independent thinking. Education is art, and art is nourished by inspiration; the principal must seek the companionship of his fellow-artists and profit by their influence and the work of their hands.[1]

The principal's professional competency must emerge from a background of general culture. He must be more than a scientist in education; he must

[1] Milwaukee allows a principal five days per year for the visitation of other schools; Minneapolis, five days; New York, three days; etc.

relate his science to the whole body of organized knowledge, becoming a thoughtful student of the science of sciences, which is philosophy.[1] He must be more than an artist in education; he must relate his art to its fellow-arts and crafts, so that he never ceases to be a man among men. The most serious reproach made of school men is that they are pedantic and provincial; the principal must fulfill his "general" obligations to society the while he seeks the beneficent attrition which accompanies association with men of other arts, of other crafts, of other professions, with men of breadth, of balance, of energy, of purpose, and of accomplishment.

4. The Position

"In almost every aspect, except that of salary, the principalship of a school is the most desirable of all educational positions, unless one desires to pursue in a professorship some particular line of study." [2]

[1] "To be an educator is not, then, to be a man merely conversant with the customs and conventionalities of the schoolroom. It is to be a man with a defensible social creed. . . . Unless we are courageous enough to work back to this firm ground, the philosophic idea, we can have no assured position on any question of human import, and surely nothing to say about education that will be at all worth saying." — C. HANFORD HENDERSON, "Education and the Larger Life," Boston, 1902, p. 6.

[2] Chancellor, *op. cit.*, p. 176.

Let us consider the main proposition of this statement, together with the two exceptions noted, beginning with the exceptions.

"Except that of salary." The phrase should be frankly and seriously considered by every one who contemplates enlisting in the service of education. As financial advancement for elementary school teachers lies mainly along the line of promotion into the principalships, and as positions of greater remuneration are few and far between, the real question for the teaching aspirant is: Can I be satisfied with the salary of a principalship as the maximum of my financial reward? The salaries of principals vary greatly in different cities and towns, according to the local cost of living, the size of the schools and the consequent responsibility involved, and the standard of qualifications for the position. As compared with the financial returns in other vocations, it must be admitted that the average income of educators is considerably less than that of the other workers, except the ministers.

The returns from graduates of Bowdoin College, collected by President Hyde,[1] are probably typical. He found

[1] William De Witt Hyde, "The College Man and the College Woman," New York, 1906, p. 221.

that the average annual income of graduates out of college over ten years, for those in the various vocations, was as follows: —

1.	Medicine	$4687
2.	Law	4577
3.	Journalism	4271
4.	Business	3790
5.	Banking	3718
6.	Government employment[1]	3230
7.	Miscellaneous	2867
8.	*Education*	*2258*
9.	Ministry	1559
	Average	3356

To say that the average income of educators is about two thirds that of men of similar equipment in other vocations, while undoubtedly a fair statement as to the prevailing condition, is nevertheless an inadequate statement, for the ambitious man is not willing to start out in life calling himself the "average" man. The chances, it is true, are all in favor of his becoming an average man, but he would not become even that if he lacked the determination to excel the average. He may enter medicine and aspire to thousand-dollar fees; he may enter law and aspire to a fifty-thousand-dollar practice; he

[1] Presumably excluding teachers.

may enter business and aspire to untold wealth: at least, there is nothing in the premises to make his ambitions impossible of fulfillment. Or he may enter educational work and aspire to a three-thousand-dollar principalship or a five-thousand-dollar chair, or to a ten-thousand-dollar superintendency or college presidency; but he will not look forward to a twenty-thousand-dollar position, for the sufficiently convincing reason that there is none. It is quite evident that if the young man is eager for the chase of dollars, he will not pursue his quarry in the open fields of education. If he lacks this sporting interest and prefers a fairly assured and steady income, though a meager one, then may he turn his attention to teaching. If he reaches a principalship in a city system, he will be "fairly well" paid, but not "exactly" paid. It may be of interest to inquire why his pay is but moderate and why it is inexact.

The organizing and administering ability of a thoroughly competent principal of a large city school is not rated at its full commercial value because the principal is the victim of one of the greatest monopolies in the world. The State has taken over the bulk of the schooling "business." If government kept its hands off entirely, as in the case of other

businesses, there would be the same opportunity for the principal to "make money" as there is in those other vocations.

For instance, an enterprising principal of a school of two thousand pupils, now paid, say, three thousand dollars, could capitalize his "plant," give better satisfaction to his "patrons" than he can now give, return a large interest on the capital, and make for himself from ten to twenty thousand dollars.

The same qualifications that make him a good administrative principal would make him a good administrator in commercial lines where the income is much greater; he is, however, outside these lines of competition. Having once reached an administrative position, he has spent too many years in technical training to be able to get into active competition with executive men outside his profession. Hence he is appraised, not at what he might have earned had he gone into the commercial field from the first, but at whatever sum he can wrest from a not too willing board of aldermen or board of education or State legislature.

The salary of a city principal is inexact because of the state monopoly of education and also because of the size of the monopolistic system. Salaries are

necessarily fixed by schedules, and flat rates have to be made to cover a class. Thus all the principals in a system may be paid two thousand dollars. In reality, one principal may be worth to the city ten thousand dollars, and another, something with a minus sign before it; in the evening-up process, the best principals are underpaid and the poor ones overpaid. Were the same men employed in a competitive system, or even in a large corporation within which competition prevails, they would be rewarded more nearly in accord with their comparative merits.

The teacher's annual salary is regarded as ample by the average citizen because he is prone to divide it by "working" hours and finds the hourly pay quite satisfying. He overlooks the fact that good teaching is not a matter of "hours," and also perhaps the fact so important to the teacher, namely, that he has to live, at some expense, during *all* the hours of the year. The educator is tempted, when this critical estimate of his salary is made, to try to reduce his service to the hourly basis and to supplement his income by employing, for financial profit, the extra hours he is supposed to squander. But this at best is unsatisfactory from every standpoint; it is a strain and a division of interest which must

react unfavorably upon his school work. To relieve him from this temptation is one of the duties of salary-schedule makers; and it is, after all, a strictly "business" proposition.

It is evident, then, that the desirability of a principalship cannot wholly, if at all, depend upon its financial attractiveness. Having faced this unfeeling fact, let us next turn to the other "exception."

"Unless one desires to pursue in a professorship some particular line of study." Financially considered, the college instructorship and the principalship are about at a parity. The maximum salary may be reached in fewer years in the case of the principalship, and attainable salaries in the case of a very few professorships exceed those within reach of the principal. The element of monetary reward may then be eliminated in comparing the two offices, and what remains is chiefly the factor of personal preference. The professor works more intensively, the principal works more extensively; the one works more logically, the other more pedagogically; the one works nearer the ideal, the other works nearer the people; each is peculiarly restricted and circumscribed, and each is peculiarly free. There is no disputing as to tastes; and so the choice of these

two careers is to be determined by the ratio between the attractions of each and the personal coëfficient of the elector.

The main proposition of our quotation concerns the attractiveness of the principalship; and it is "the most desirable of all educational positions" on several counts.

"No other person in the school system can do so much good at first hand." [1] The influence of the principal is extensive and yet direct. Within the limits of his school building, he reaches each and every teacher and pupil, and reflects himself in them. His influence with the pupils is not so direct as that of the teacher, nor does it extend to so many pupils as does that of the superintendent; yet it is more satisfactorily direct than the superintendent's, and more satisfactorily extensive than the teacher's. The opportunities for intelligent service to pupils, teachers, and the community are unlimited.

It yields, too, a more personal and, if you will, a more selfish satisfaction. The principal, presumably, is a student, with the instincts and habits and aspirations of the student; and it is doubtful if there is any other vocational position wherein these

[1] Dutton, "School Management," p. 241.

instincts can be given freer rein, these habits better trained, and these aspirations more nearly satisfied. The conscientious and observant principal will greatly appreciate the cultural value of his position. He touches life at many points: he is privileged daily to look into the minds of hundreds of children; he studies closely the personalities, instructive in both their diversity and their unity, of many teachers; he conducts himself with loyalty and courtesy, yet without sycophancy and deceit, in his dealings with officialdom; he exhibits the spirit of unaffected democracy in his intercourse with the visitors to his office: in short, his view epitomizes the whole range of human experience, and the comprehension and the sympathy of his insight are the measure of his own gain in true culture.

APPENDIX

QUESTIONS IN "SCHOOL MANAGEMENT" GIVEN IN VARIOUS CITIES IN EXAMINATIONS FOR PRINCIPAL'S LICENSE

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JERSEY CITY December 28, 1905.

1. Why must regularity and punctuality of attendance be regarded as important in managing a school? What may be done by the teachers to secure them? By the principal?

2. Name the studies of the elementary school course in the order of their importance. Give reasons.

3. Write a daily programme for grade 5A, assigning to each study and exercise its appropriate time.

4. What should be the object of punishment? Name four improper punishments and show why they are improper.

5. Mention the most important provisions of the compulsory school law.

6. Describe in detail the most efficient system of ventilation for a school of twenty class rooms.

NEW ORLEANS September, 1906.

1. "As is the teacher, so is the school." Explain the above expression and show what responsibilities on the part of the teacher are thereby implied.

2. What records besides those required by the rules do you think desirable to keep?

3. What simple means can be utilized by the teacher and pupils to make the schoolroom attractive?

4. Name two purposes of discipline in the schoolroom.

5. John Jones, one of your pupils, has misrepresented to his parents your treatment of him in school. The superintendent at the request of John's parents has written you asking for an explanation. Write a satisfactory report of the situation as it actually is.

6. Give a good plan for dealing with (*a*) tardiness; (*b*) whispering.

7. Should there be a study period during the regular sessions of the school? Give reasons for your answer.

8. How would you manage a "fire drill"?

9. Which do you prefer, words or the percentage scale to designate the standing of pupils? Give reasons.

10. Name the advantages to teacher and to pupils of the daily preparation by the teacher of the lesson to be taught.

NEW YORK September, 1904.

1. A certain teacher took no interest in the teaching of arithmetic and manual training, in which subjects the work of the class was poor; she produced fine results in English and singing; the work in the other subjects was passable; she seemed to make no efforts to take advantage of suggestions for improvement, being apparently indif-

ferent to advice; her influence for good on the moral character of her pupils was remarkable. On a scale of A, excellent; B+, very good; C, poor; D, worthless, what rating would you give to this teacher at the end of the first year of service? If she were retained for the second year, how would you treat the case? Give reasons. (15)

2. If an assistant to principal were assigned to supervising the teachers of the first three years of work, what are the points you would take into consideration in estimating the efficiency of her service: (*a*) as to teaching; (*b*) as to discipline? Give reasons. (16)

3. State four causes of the lack of *esprit de corps* in a class; in a school. State one distinctly appropriate means of improvement for each of these cases. (12)

4. Describe two systems of grading and promoting pupils intended to advance them as rapidly as application, ability, and attainment will admit. Point out the weak and the strong points of each system. (14)

5. Describe measures for promoting the safety of pupils in case of fire (*a*) as regards the equipment or material side of the school, and (*b*) the organization or work of the principal and the teachers. (12)

6. (*a*) State four defects in the personality of some young teachers which lead to disorder in a class. (*b*) Treating each defect separately, prepare for such a teacher a set of suggestions designed to remedy the defects mentioned. (16)

7. Describe three abnormal conditions of pupils. State distinctively appropriate treatment for each condition. (15)

NEW YORK September, 1906.

1. (*a*) Describe four actual or proposed methods of properly grading elementary schools, and (*b*) state the specific merits claimed for each system and the objections to each. (6)

2. Describe two systems designed to bring about self-government of pupils, and (*b*) criticise with reasons each system. (8)

3. Describe under the three heads, school organization, subjects of instruction, and discipline, the proper treatment of backward children. (15)

4. (*a*) State the physical condition of fatigue (4); (*b*) describe four signs of fatigue (4); and (*c*) state four ways of preventing or relieving fatigue (4).

5. Discuss the subject of home study in elementary schools, including the principal's duty in regard to home study. (12)

6. What considerations should guide a principal in judging the work of (*a*) a teacher of German; (*b*) a teacher of cooking. (10)

7. "The teacher is often confronted in the schoolroom with an abnormal type of will. Nineteen times out of twenty it is best for the teacher *to apperceive the case as one of neural pathology* rather than *one of moral culpability*." — JAMES.

(*a*) Explain the italicized expressions. (5) (*b*) Criticise the statement. (5) (*c*) Tell, with reasons, what should be the aim of the teacher in a specified case. (5)

8. The syllabus in history and civics for Grade 5B calls for the teaching of the provisions of the Compulsory Education Law and the duties of citizenship in regard to it. (*a*) What chief points should be presented in carrying out this work? (5) (*b*) How may the principal aid in this matter? (5)

NEW YORK (Assistant to Principal) September, 1907.

1. (*a*) State the principles that underlie an ideal system of promoting elementary pupils. (4) (*b*) Describe a practical system by which the pupils in the lower grades of a New York City elementary school may be promoted as fast as their ability will permit. (4) (*c*) Defend the system you have described. (4)

2. Mention four games suitable to be played by first-year children at recess, and describe the method of playing two of them, indicating the part to be taken by the teacher. (4)

3. Supposing the spirit and practice of dishonesty, *e.g.* cheating and stealing, to be rife in a class (or a school), describe how a principal (or assistant to principal) may deal effectively with the situation. (6)

4. "That point of education which consists in teaching the mind to control its desires and inclinations is the most important of all." — YOUMANS.

(*a*) Explain the meaning of *control* as here used. (2)

(*b*) Describe the means to this end that may properly be employed in the elementary schools. (6)

5. Explain the following terms: (*a*) the plenum-vacuum system (2); (*b*) the point of fatigue (1); (*c*) moral imbecile (1); (*d*) artificial incentive (1).

6. Describe proper adjustment of seats and desks. (6)

CHICAGO July, 1907.

1. What are the pedagogical factors underlying music, drawing, manual training, for elementary school pupils?

2. Mention three common practices of teachers, incidental to school life, that violate the psychology of volition in children. Explain.

3. Distinguish between habits that are acquired by focusing the attention on the processes involved and those that are incidentally learned, *i.e.* brought about by so-called marginal attention. Which of these modes of procedure should be emphasized for the following objects: accuracy in spelling; "taste" in reading and "style" in composition; "form" in writing; ideals of cleanliness, industry, and honor?

4. Discuss: "Corporal punishment and reward-giving as substitute for ability on the part of the teacher."

BOSTON January, 1907.

1. Approximately in what grade does the maintenance of discipline become most difficult, and why?

2. Some principals require much marching in line; others require little or none. What justification has each?

3. In what ways do teachers cause truancy among pupils?

4. What supplementary activities have you found to be most desirable in connection with elementary schools?

5. Make a sample programme for an elementary school, such as to obtain the greatest amount of work with the least fatigue of pupils.

PHILADELPHIA September, 1906.

1. Name some of the causes of disorder in the schoolroom and state briefly the remedies for these disorders.

2. What are the essential characteristics of a good teacher? Which of these do you regard as of most importance, and why?

3. How much attention should be given to the moral instruction of the child in the school? How should this moral instruction be given?

4. State briefly how you would deal with

(*a*) an impudent pupil; (*b*) a disobedient pupil; (*c*) an angry parent.

5. Indicate the number of hours per week, out of a possible twenty-five hours, you would devote to (*a*) reading in first-year classes; (*b*) mathematics in fifth-year classes; (*c*) geography and history in eighth-year classes (classes preparing to enter high schools). In each case explain why you would give the subject the time you indicate.

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